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Strategies for Augmentation Initiatives for Leadership Self-Development Program

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Perhaps too much is being asked of the self-development pillar of the Army leadership system in view of current technological and social change. Some augmentation and enhancement efforts are indicated. A variety of such initiatives are proposed in this report, including the use of recorded books, condensed books, special reading agendas, and the inauguration of a journal that would serve as a guidance mechanism for more productive self-education reading programs. Some new directions in leadership self-development are also proposed. Among these are reconceptualizing leadership as conventional behavior and task mastery that can be operationalized at an everyday level of accomplishment. If leadership can be viewed as a social role, then it can be used as a socialization mechanism. This process is best accomplished by mastering a series of increasingly complex skills and successfully integrating them. A structured, self-motivating competence delivery system to master such skills is proposed, as are several training exercises that enhance teamwork and promote leadership.

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STRATEGIES FOR AUGMENTATION INITIATIVES FOR LEADERSHIP SELF-DEVELOPMENT PROGRAM

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

Requirement:

The U.S. Army has traditionally sought to develop leadership in its officers and NCOs through school training, experience obtained in the course of unit assignments, and education efforts on the part of the individuals themselves. Because dramatic technological and social change in recent years has severely impacted on the military, it may be that too much is being asked of self-development initiatives and that expectations of such initiatives may be unrealistic. It would appear that this pillar of the leadership development system could be more effective with appropriate augmentation and enhancement.

Augmentation Initiatives:

A variety of augmentation measures are suggested and discussed. These measures include listening to recorded books while commuting to and from work, having the Army develop a listening library for its personnel, and having the Army facilitate the publication of volumes of condensed versions of books relevant to the interests of military readers. Other strengthening initiatives proposed include the concept of a reading agenda and two specific such agendas. One of these reading programs focuses on military failure as a means of understanding military success; the other agenda addresses leadership as the product of life experiences in the biographies of successful individuals. Yet another suggested measure for enhancing leadership self-development efforts is the inauguration of a journal that will serve as a guidance mechanism for developing and maintaining a productive self-education reading program.

Suggested New Directions in Self-Development:

The process of leadership development might be facilitated if the idea of leadership could be reconceptualized as conventional behavior, complex task mastery that can be operationalized at an everyday level of accomplishment, and as a competence based on definable roles that can be inculcated into individuals. There are a number of advantages that attend conceptualizing leadership as a social role, such as using this

concept as a socialization mechanism. To acquire and effectively play a leadership role requires the mastery of a series of increasingly complex skills and the successful integration of such skills. The establishment of a structured, self-motivating, competence delivery system to be labeled M*A*P*L*E*S will assemble a varied array of learning opportunities and situations and make them available to the individual who will be able to pick and choose from the "menu" of offerings. By pursuing particular learning opportunities, the individual can master various leadership enhancing skills, which, in turn, will contribute to the necessary capabilities to play a leadership role. The system will be structured as a "game" in order to provide a motivating dimension.

The need to confront the problem of developing leadership in others will be addressed through the creation of various teamwork enhancing and leadership promoting training exercises. Two such exercises, labeled C*O*M*P*E*T*E and C*R*I*S*I*S, are outlined as illustrations of appropriate instructional mechanisms. These are only examples, however, and commanders are encouraged to develop and implement training exercises of their own.

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FOR LEADERSHIP SELF-DEVELOPMENT PROGRAM

INTRODUCTION

> A good general knowledge of the
> world's history, geography, and
> international relations is also a
> vital leadership tool. This is
> especially necessary to the American
> officer, since he may expect to be
> sent anywhere in the world and to
> fight almost any enemy, for any of a
> wide variety of reasons. Given the
> political nature of war and the
> physical circumstances in which it is
> carried out, this is the only
> conceivable intellectual background
> for someone expected to lead armies
> to victory. He must understand the
> situations in which he finds himself,
> to know the reasons why he is
> fighting and why he must order his
> men into blood combat.
>
> Christopher Bassford

The purpose of this report is to identify possible
augmentation measures that might facilitate and strengthen the
self-development component of the Army's leadership development
system. Even the most elaborate and comprehensive formal
education and training program, and the most focused, purposeful,
and relevant application of competencies in varied job
assignments may not necessarily suffice to keep professional
skills updated, or to further perfect leadership capability. To
do so requires an ongoing dedicated attention to, and effort
directed toward, the maintenance of intellectual understanding
and insight derived through self-education activities.

Today the professional, regardless of vocational specialty,
must master an ever widening inventory of skills, both technical
and social, and contend with a broader array of constraints and
considerations that may impact on prerogatives. In all
professional and managerial spheres, the tasks of demonstrating
exemplary behavior, providing effective guidance and direction to
subordinates, and exercising persuasive judgment have become more
challenging. Changes within and without the workplace everywhere
have altered the nature of leadership dynamics.

The technological intricacies of modern warfare and the convoluted complexity of contemporary politics call for the highest order of professional competencies and the innovativeness and adaptability that only accomplished leadership skills can provide. The Army professional must continue to be able to demonstrate forceful and successful leadership within a wide range of possible missions and utilizations. Current economic factors, however, mandate that any restructuring of leadership self-development processes be highly cost effective.

Social Change and the Challenge to Leadership

Large scale organization does not exist in a social vacuum. Rather they exist within a larger societal context and are very much susceptible to the impact of social and technological changes external to the organization. The U.S. Army is no exception. Such changes have import for the organization in terms of factors such as morale, efficiency, productivity, and effectiveness. Different kinds of extra-organizational changes may bear on organizational structure and dynamics. The period since the 1960's has seen very dramatic changes in the socionormative sphere (i.e, the ideological component) of America society. The demography of the United States has been undergoing significant change for some time and, as a result, the labor force has also been undergoing changes in terms of its demographic composition. All organization in the United States society, including the military, are sensitive to economic changes, and the massive military downsizing effort in which the United States is now involved will drastically change the very organizational identity of the various armed services. Few changes have impacted on the military as much as the massive technological changes that have occurred since World War II, encompassing weaponry, transportation, communication, medical technology, and information processing. Military doctrine and tactics have had to be revised, modified, and in some instances, recreated.

Beyond the extra-organizational changes there have also been intra-organizational changes facing the military, including the shift from an *institutional* model social organization to that of an *occupational* model social organization resulting from the termination of the draft and the metamorphosis to the all volunteer armed forces. With the downfall of Communism in Russia and Eastern Europe, and the precipitous decline of the Eastern Bloc Military, the immediate threat of major war has been removed. Geo-political trends have changed the global political situation, and numerous new and often disparate missions have been assigned to the U.S. Army.

The various changes confronting the military are vast, complex, and socially disjunctive. There are critical consequences for organizational dynamics. The Army has little choice but to accommodate the changes impacting on it, and there is a certain urgency in the need for accommodative process. This accommodation will necessarily have to include new institutional postures in regard to traditional ideological mandates, and significantly modified alterations in the mechanics of decision making, personnel motivation, discipline, control, administrative prerogatives, group coordination, task accomplishment, and supervision. The most significant locus for the implementation of such transformations in the military bureaucratic process is the relationship between supervisor and subordinate, and the constituent exercise of leadership. In this regard, there is an imperative need for strong Army leadership that can effectively recognize, accommodate, and utilize to organizational advantage, the enormous changes that have occurred. This process can best be accomplished, perhaps, through a careful consideration of possible accretionary efforts to revitalize and make more effective the existing Army programs for leadership self-development.

METHOD

The Army describes its leadership development program as a system. Employing a structural-functional perspective, the leadership development program was examined using system analysis (Porter, 1962). Beginning with the larger development program, the conceptual parameters were inspected in regard to the validity and relevance of the rationale for the instructional model. Beyond this, the general functionality of the larger program was explored to determine if the earlier goals of the program were continuing to be met, or if the changing context in which the military now operates has, in effect, mandated different or additional educational objectives. The larger program was subsequently reviewed for areas or components of the system that possess singular strengths or weaknesses.

Focusing more closely on the self-development pillar of the overall program, the unique role played by this component as a developmental sub-system was critically analyzed in terms of constituent advantageous and disadvantageous characteristics of a self-development approach to expanding an individual's knowledge and leadership development. Special analytical attention was given to the efficacy of the conceptual paradigm of this self-development pillar of the larger program as a focused, self-motivating learning system. The guiding question in the subsequent examination was whether or not any conceptual inconsistences or ambiguities, with respect to the methods involved and developmental goals, are imbedded in the sub-system model. Various problematic dimensions of the self-development mechanism were identified and explored. The concluding step was

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to generate and propose various argumentative changes or improvements that might be effected in the self-development pillar of the program that would enhance the overall leadership development effort.

THE DEVELOPMENT OF LEADERSHIP

The Current Army Leadership Development System

The Army's leadership doctrine specifies various essential leadership requirements. Army doctrine suggests that if these requirements are appropriately met or satisfied the leader will be able to execute effectively the Army's operations doctrine. Within this larger capability, a number of constituent competencies, abilities, and responsibilities have been identified. It is through the exercise of these proficiencies that individuals are able to demonstrate the leadership necessary to influence subordinates to carry out the operational mission. In this regard, the leader provides purpose, direction, and motivation for his or her subordinates.

Traditionally, the Army has sought to inculcate leadership in its officers and NCO's by relying heavily on the principle of emulation. Military leaders from the past who were effective and successful in war are believed to be worthy of emulation. The "leadership factors, principles, and competencies" derived from studies of those past leaders have provided the content elements of leadership development efforts for today's officer and NCO's. The teaching and learning mechanisms felt appropriate to transmit these qualities are contained in the Army's current leader development program.

This approach to the propagation of leadership has proved to be durable and utilitarian in the past. Although its adequacy may becoming less functional in the contemporary military context, it has many obvious strengths and continues to have a relevance for the needs of today's Army. The enormity of social and technological change that has occurred since World War II, however, or even in the past several decades is such that the military leadership needs of today's Army may have assumed additional parameters. Both the changes that have taken place and the expanded leadership dimensions would seem to merit an on-going, thoughtful, and detailed examination in regard to the mechanisms by which the Army attempts to develop officers and NCO's.

In FM 22-100, *Military Leadership* (July, 1990), the Army articulates four basic leadership requirements (p.vii). These include:

1. Lead in peace to be prepared for war.
2. Develop individual leaders.

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3.   Develop leadership teams.
4.   Decentralize.

The first of these requirements, "Lead in Peace to be Prepared for War," has traditionally been a guiding principle in Army ideology concerning the training mission. If peacetime training can be almost exclusively devoted to the skills appropriate to full scale warfare, a high level of competence on the part of officers and NCO's might be attained and maintained. Acquired skills can be practiced and refined and in many instances, competence can even be elevated to the level of expertise. The intervals between major conflicts often provide ample time for technological improvement and also opportunity for developing new warfare doctrine and perfecting the tactical repertoire as well. Additionally they afford an occasion to incorporate such innovations into standard training agendas. For example, strategy may be rendered ineffective when faced with an on-going mandate for participation in sporadic military missions of diverse purpose and sometimes ambiguous goals. Given the recent generic multiple mission employment of the Army, it might be expected that in-depth training for large scale warfare has given way to impromptu preparation for the next probable expedition.

In the second leadership requirement, "Develop individual leaders," the Army specifies the need for such leaders. In effect, the exercise of leadership includes the responsibility to develop leadership in subordinates. The Army relies on the same structural mechanisms for leadership development in all ranks: schools, operational experience, and self-development efforts. In FM 22-100, Army doctrine indicates that, "At all levels, the next senior leader has the responsibility to create leader development programs that develop professional officer and NCO leaders" (P.vii).

Component to the requirement to develop individual leaders is the mandate for "the ethical development of self and subordinates ----." The text here speaks of the professional "Army ethic," and the need to make a personal commitment to this ethic. It asserts (p.vii):

> Every leader must be a role model actively
> working to make his subordinates sensitive to
> ethical matters. Leaders must not tolerate
> unethical behavior by subordinates, peers, or
> superiors.

This can be an area of great ambiguity, if not confusion. The concept of ethics can, under some circumstances, refer to morality or professional standards of conduct, or even loyalty to an organizational or ideology. It is very unclear as to which

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meaning is intended here! Clarification, elaboration, and
articulation are very necessary in this mandate. A misterpre-
tation of an ethical situation by an individual who is to serve
as a role model, may cause subordinates who attempt to emulate
the role model, to act in an unethical fashion themselves.
Beyond ethics, however, there is the question of professional
comportment and proprietous behavior. Certainly, leadership
development needs to include some attention to this area of
responsibilities. After "Tailhook," this is a sensitive area.

The requirements for leadership also includes the
specification of developing leadership teams. The rationale
for team leadership is based on the need to provide "continuity
in combat" linked more to the commander's plan rather than to
particular substitute leaders. In effect, the plan has
continuity regardless of contingencies because the chain of
acting leaders knows and follows the plan. Team leadership
development may be less a product of formal effort and attempt at
inculcation than practice and experience working together.

The final leadership requirement indicated by doctrine is
that of decentralization. If there is good team leadership, and
if all subordinate leaders have developed to their full
potential, then the primary leader will be comfortable in
permitting subordinate leaders to exercise initiative and make
decisions. The primary leader must know the capabilities of
these subordinates and delegate authority accordingly.
Decentralization is always a matter of balance, sensitivity, and
equilibrium. In order to trust his subordinates, the primary
leader must know and understand them. Again, as with effective
team leadership, appropriate decentralization may have to grow on
it own with experience and the confidence that comes from working
together over time. Instructions in principles is possible, but
the perfection of such leadership process requires trial and
error evolving into routine.

The Three-Pillared Leadership Development System

To implement the goal of total commitment to develop leaders
in peacetime who will be prepared for war, as well as the other
three leadership initiatives, the Army relies on a three-pillared
leadership development system which it has constructed for this
purpose. This system is based on three equally important
pillars. These are:

1. Schools (school training)
2. Experience (unit assignments)
3. Self-development (self-training)

1.   Schools (school training)

Army schools represent the most structured variety of
leadership development. Through formal curricula and carefully
planned and executed relevant instruction, students at such
schools are exposed to Army strategy and tactics, doctrine, and
the appropriate techniques for accomplishing military missions.
The training received at Army schools is designed to be
"Progressive and sequential" and in this way potential leaders
can be prepared for "positions of greater responsibility"
(FM 22-100: p.vii). The Army school training system is
traditional, elaborate, and comprehensive. It is designed to be
relevant to existing military needs, and very much
institutionalized. This system has become very closely linked to
the Army reward structure and career advancement. Beyond the
technical and tactical skills which the schools attempt to
impart, they also seek to inculcate leadership skills in their
students. In this regard, their efforts are well intended and
considerable resources are devoted to this purpose. The Army
monitors its school system and constituent programs . Changes in
curricula are on-going, and modifications and revisions in
doctrine and ideology are incorporated as appropriate. The Army
school training system appears to be both productive and
effective in educational efforts in regard to leadership as well
as in the areas of technical and tactical topics.

2.   Experience (on-the-job-training)

The efficacy of good on-the-job training is self-evident.
A relatively significant proportion of the socialization process
for most vocations tends to take place on the job itself, and, in
fact, the phrase, "on-the-job-training" has become a commonly
used appellation for learning the specifics of an occupational
role after actually occupying the work status. Many occupational
specialties try to use this arrangement in a constructive, if not
productive, way. In some instances, the "on-the-job-training" is
well integrated with the school educational process.

Such integration may involve the neophyte actually
interacting with clientele and performing professional work under
supervision such as in the instance of "clinical training" in
medical school, or the supervised casework year for student
social workers. In other situations, simulated professional work
may be included in the training process as in the case of
"moot court" in law school. Sometimes, the training process on
the job seeks to "break in" the newcomer gradually. The
"management trainee" in a large corporation, for example, may
initially be assigned to very low level tasks, such as working on
the assembly line with blue collar workers for a time. The
trainees will be moved up the promotion line slowly to assistant
foreman, then foreman, etc,, as they develop proficiency with
each successively higher level task. Only after they thoroughly

understand the functional dynamics of the industrial work system will they finally be moved into a junior management job.

In the Army, the young officer is initially sent to an appropriate school for training. After graduating from the school, he or she will be assigned to a position, for which the school experience theoretically prepared him or her. In a best case scenario there will be a highly congruent interface between training context and job demands. Ideally, they will receive appropriate counseling and supervisory direction from superiors. If they only receive minimal mentoring, it may become necessary to teach themselves what the job entails. By the time they master the responsibilities of their position, it may be that they will then receive a new job assignment, possibly at another location, and then will have to begin learning their job all over again. In such eventualities the individual's leadership potential may not be significantly advanced and, additionally, he or she may simply not have the luxury of time to devote to leadership self-development. Thus, the experiences of a duty assignment may or may not constitute the most conducive learning situation in terms of leadership development, and the demanding nature of many duty assignments, unfortunately, may tend to preclude effective self-development.

On-the-job training, however, is problematic for many occupations, not just the military. It is very difficult to design specific instructional curricula for all of the many different kinds of positions that are component to a large scale organization. For most varieties of organizations, both technical and leadership (or managerial) training necessarily has to be generic in content. Also supervisors in many complex organizations, including the military, are often sufficiently challenged by the demands of their own job that they are sometimes effectively constrained from devoting the necessary time and effort to the direct and detailed guidance of subordinates in learning the nuisances of a new job and acquiring operational competence in the various task demands of the position. Nevertheless, on-the-job training is an important instructional vehicle in imparting both technical skills and more generic supernumerary skills such as leadership (or professionalism). In this regard, there is always a need for further refinement and structuring of the guidance role. Such training is most successful, however, when coupled with motivated and effective mentoring.

3.   Self-development (self-training)

The self-development component of the Army's leadership development system is officially articulated as an "equally important" pillar of the system and, in this regard, the Army views it as a significant mechanism for leadership education. The Army recognizes that no matter how extensive or how effective its program of formal education might be, it is not realistic to

expect that individuals obtain the sum total of knowledge needed for the array of competencies that will be required in the course of their military career from attendance at the various schools to which they will be sent. As the Army phrases it, "the formal education system has limits to what it can accomplish" (FM 22-100:vii). Nor will the supplemental educational value of on-the-job experience derived from duty assignments be sufficient either, even when combined with the considerable benefits of attendance at specialized schools.

Regardless of the professional specialty -- medicine, law, engineering, dentistry, or the military -- the instructional programs of formal schooling, or the less formal educational experience that derives from on-the-job training in duty assignments (even with mentored guidance from superiors) are seldom adequate to the task of totally preparing the neophyte for a completely effective professional performance. There are always gaps in knowledge that must be filled in, technical and tactical procedures that must be perfected, understanding and insights that must be deepened, questions and inquiries to be addressed, occupational versatility to be cultivated, and, perhaps most importantly, on-going professional competence to be maintained, updated, and augmented. The surgeon who did not read of new procedures in the medical journals would soon be antiquated, the attorney who did not keep up with court precedents would soon be outmatched in the courtroom, and the engineer who did not learn of new building materials (and new building codes) would certainly be obsolete. Career Army Officers or NCOs, who were derelict in staying abreast of new military developments, emerging geo-political situations, improved managerial styles, new social mandates that alter superior/subordinate relationships, or even further study of the historical exercise of military leadership, might well find themselves inadequate to the task demands of their job, and their professional development severely curtailed.

Self-development based largely on self education necessarily plays an inordinately important role in perfecting skills, maintaining competence, and promoting professional growth. Unfortunately, however, too much may be asked of self-development within the contemporary context. In this regard, the self-development pillar has become something of a residual category of professional education, a kind of "catch-all" mechanism, as it were. That which cannot be accommodated within the more formal educational mechanisms can be relegated to the informal mechanism. The self-education process, perhaps, today is the object of unrealistic expectations. The Army recognizes that the professional has the responsibility and the need to "continue to expand [his or her] knowledge base," and speaks of various means of accomplishing this. Included are such devices as correspondence courses, civilian education, and/or reading programs. In the absence of specificity, elaborate guidance and

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counsel, or purposeful structure, the self-development pillar of
the leadership development program is probably not formidable
enough to adequately address the tasks, and this would seem to
warrant a concerted strengthening and augmentation effort.

Summary

The dramatic pace, and diverse directions, of social change
in recent years has had significant impact on the Army in terms
of new and more varied missions, altered organizational dynamics,
new ideological mandates, different administrative orientations,
and a much modified pattern of interpersonal interaction and
relationship. All of this calls for appropriate examination and
reconceptualization of the Army's leadership development program.

The existing Army leadership development system relies on
three pillars which are constructed for this purpose. Army
schools are well institutionalized, designed to be relevant to
existing military needs, and receive appropriate resources. They
are responsive to change and military need, and appear to be
productive and effective. The second pillar of the system,
on-the-job-training obtained through duty assignments, provides
the individual with practical experience and the opportunity to
exercise and further develop both technical and leadership
skills. This process is particularly facilitated where there is
effective guidance mentoring of the individual by his or her
supervisor.

The third pillar of the system, self-education traditionally
exercised through Army correspondence courses, civilian
education, and an individual reading program, has been an
important mechanism of leadership development. It may well be,
however, that too much is being asked of self-development
efforts. Always something of a residual or "catch-all"
educational mechanism, self-initiatives in education, as
presently conceptualized and implement may be inadequate to
today's rapidly changing military context, and expectations in
regard to its effectiveness may be unrealistic. This situation
would seem to suggest that this pillar of the leadership
development system could profitably be enhanced and appropriately
expanded where indicated.

STRENGTHENING THE SELF-DEVELOPMENT PILLAR

"The one quality that can
be developed by studious
reflection and practice
is the leadership of
men."

General Dwight Eisenhower

The Importance of Self-development

The Army's Leadership Development Program paradigm places considerable emphasis on the self-development or self-training component. This emphasis is logically based on the premise that sound training programs with effective content, and relevant on-the-job-training derived from the experience of different unit assignments will make individuals aware of the need for continued intellectual growth, will sensitize them to the potential of individually implemented education, and will motivate them to make full practical use of this means of leadership development. Both the formal training programs and operational assignments ideally encompass appropriate competence building instruction in technical areas, confidence development efforts directed toward enhanced facility in social skills, and more insightful understanding of the dynamics of military leadership. Such a context should encourage and facilitate self-education efforts.

The Utility and Practicality of Self-education

There is a long tradition of self-development in many fields of endeavor. Self-motivated, individual learning has long been a popular means of acquiring, or augmenting, an education. It has been particularly popular in America. Many famous historical figures such as Benjamin Franklin and Abraham Lincoln were said to have essentially acquired their education through individual efforts. Dwight Eisenhower was reported to have been a voracious reader of materials relevant to his vocation and was able to enhance his leadership skills in this manner.

Many lesser known Americans either acquired a more general exposure to the liberal arts or some more specialized knowledge of a vocational field through a regimen of intensive individual reading. Prior to World War II, there were significant numbers of individuals who had self-qualified themselves for the pursuit of various vocations through individual reading programs. Even some professionals were largely self-taught. Many attorneys, for example, had simply "read the law" and then passed the bar examination. Even some pharmacists, and an occasional physician, had read relevant technical books on their own as a means of preparing themselves for the formal examinations for those professions. Many self-taught professionals, however, did often augment their individual reading programs with the use of tutors in the form of professional practitioners who were willing to provide coaching or tutoring services. It was common, for example, for a newly certified attorney to say, "I read law with Mr. _____."

A great many more Americans have been involved in self-education efforts that were more structured than simply reading a number of books relevant to a particular specialty area on their own. One particularly widely used such self-education vehicle

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has been the correspondence course. In this regard, many conventional colleges and universities have developed elaborate extension programs relying on correspondence courses offering a great variety of academic topics. Also popular have been the correspondence courses offered by various technical and specialized institutes or non-accredited colleges. Such enterprises have offered correspondence courses in many blue-collar technical and vocational fields, ranging from commercial art to pipefitting to drafting. Some university correspondence courses can be used toward degree requirements, although there are frequently limits on the number of such courses that can be counted. Correspondence courses have proved to be especially popular and utilitarian with certain categories of individuals such as convicts, long term hospital or convalescent patients, persons in isolated work situations, or highly mobile individuals who have difficulty fulfilling residence requirements. Military personnel readily qualify under the last two categories. Correspondence courses of different varieties are essentially, more structured reading programs. By picking and choosing from a great variety of correspondence course offerings, the individual can, as with a personal reading program, in effect, "tailor make" his or her educational experience. Correspondence courses can be an important variety of self-development mechanism.

The Advantages of Self-development

Formal education provides structure for knowledge and skills. There are, however, often gaps or spaces within this structure. The structural elements, however, can easily serve as "anchoring" components for new knowledge. Through self-learning, these gaps in an individual's general inventory of knowledge can be readily enclosed or filled out with new information that "bonds" or links to existing segments of knowledge. The gaps have to be filled in through self-inquiry. This process serves as a function that is analogous to the architectural principle of *infill*.

Self-development readily interfaces with available time opportunities. In general, continuing education after beginning a career necessitates fitting educational opportunities into such spaces in one's occupational schedule as come to exist. Self-education appropriately addresses the problem. Individualized reading and study can be accommodated within the temporal gaps in a demanding occupational schedule.

Formal education such as is provided by university education and military training schools is highly standardized. In spite of the many choices of topics and disciplines available at a university, for example, there are frequently required "core" curricula at the university and internal college level. Most students at a university take a significant number of the same courses. At a military service training school, of course, for a

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given program or "school," there is a completely uniform curriculum. Self-education offers a truly flexible exposure to knowledge. Individual learning needs can be met in a very precise but accommodating fashion through the use of a highly focused reading program, or reliance on selected units of some other specific vehicle of self-education. Thus, self-education is flexible education.

Self-education is also self-paced education. Most formal education operates within a tightly structured time schedule. At colleges and universities, courses are offered in time blocks, or classes of a certain number of minutes length on particular days of the week. Additional structure involves semesters or quarters. Individuals must take and pass, a certain number of courses within a specific time frame in order to be able to still graduate and receive a degree. The only temporal flexibility available to the student is to enroll for fewer courses in a given year and, thus, take more years to graduate. Army training also operates within similar tightly structured temporal frameworks. Even though formal education is offered on a strict time schedule, individuals do not always learn on the same schedule. Some persons can assimilate material faster than others. Self-learning can be accomplished at the tempo set by the individual, based on either optimum learning speed or schedule of other responsibilities.

The Problematic Dimension of Self-development

In spite of the benefits and utilities of the self-education process there are some inherent weaknesses and disadvantages in this developmental approach. In the manuals and other publications that mention and discuss self-development, only a few very limited vehicles or mechanisms of self-development are articulated. Usually these are Army correspondence courses, civilian education, reading programs, and other self-study programs. It is unfortunate that there is such a limited range of examples for there are numerous other configurations of individualized learning modes. We live in a multi-media society, and information and knowledge today is available in many forms. There are audio tapes, video tapes, CD ROM discs, public address series, films, interactive computer programs, and even plays and group activities (to mention but some additional examples) that might, in some contexts, have informational, insightful, or even inspirational value for self-development. Self-development possibilities are much like an iceberg. Only a small portion of them are immediately visible and the remainder are hidden and must be discovered by the individual or the individual must be made aware of them.

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Another shortcoming of the self-education approach is that unlike Army training schools or regular university programs which are designed and operated to accomplish certain sets of specific educational or training goals, self-development activities often have only limited structure such as a correspondence course, or in the instance of individualized reading program, little if any structure other than the individual's desire to read in detail about some particular topic. While such a reading effort can be extremely interesting, and certainly broadening, it may not necessarily contribute significantly to self-development, and particularly to the self-development of leadership. In the absence of guidance and direction with an individualized reading program, time, energy, and effort may be wasted and progress in educational accomplishment may be sacrificed to entertainment.

Self-development lacks group context. Learning, like many other activities, is sometimes more effective in a group situation. Learning in a group can have a number of advantages. Fellow students in an Army training school learn together and often reinforce each other's learning by discussing what is presented in class with each other outside of class. Something not understood in a presentation can often be clarified by asking a fellow student. The group context gives individuals a sense of confidence and collective motivation. The presence of the group gives a certain legitimacy to the learning situation and tends to rectify the educational content. Group activity is usually pleasant, if not enjoyable, because of informal interaction and camaraderie, and all of this contributes to the motivation for learning. Almost all of this is lacking in self-development efforts. Some individuals have difficulty with self-motivation and when involved in such efforts as an individualized reading program, are easily distracted, may experience learning blocks, and their program may tend to soon lose momentum.

Augmenting the Self-development Program

There are several initiatives that might be undertaken that would significantly augment the capability of the self-education pillar of the Army leadership development system and also enhance its effectiveness. Such initiatives would not displace, dilute, or detract from the existing process, nor would they require any alteration in any Army operative doctrine or policy directive. They would involve only a minimal expenditure of money and, accordingly, would likely prove to be cost effective. Their implementation would, ideally, expand the parameters of self-education and increase the individual motivation for that enterprise.

Making Time for Self-education

An inherent problem in the concept of self-development (for any profession) is the difficulty of an individual with a very

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busy and demanding work schedule trying to identify a suitable time slot, and to find the energy and motivation to pursue an individualized reading agenda as part of a continuing professional, self-development effort. This challenge faces professionals of all variety - physicians, attorneys, engineers - as well as career military officers and NCO's.

The Army recognizes the role of physical fitness in the health and well-being (and, thus, the work efficiency) of its personnel. In this connection, the Army authorizes and provides (or at least encourages) several hours of released time each week from the work schedule, for its members to engage in sports or physical exercise. Physical self-development is viewed as important! Intellectual self-development is also important and the Army should so recognize and evaluate it! Until such time as the Army does so, however, and officially directs released time from the duty schedule, the individual has two options.

The individual who is serious and motivated in his or her self-development efforts should openly discuss the matter with his or her commanding officer. If the commanding officer is sympathetic with such a purpose the individual may be able to successfully "negotiate" a block of released time on a regular schedule to pursue a reading agenda, or some other type of self-educational activity. The important thing is that the time be available on a continual, regularly scheduled basis. In the absence of released time from a duty schedule, the individual will have to make time in his or her non-work hours. In this connection, he or she would be well advised to adopt a strategy used by many novelists and writers. While it is true that there have been some marathon writers who could produce a novel within a period of a few weeks, and some individuals who routinely read a book in one, uninterrupted session, most writers and readers operate much more slowly. Some of the most famous novelists, for example, would set a writing pace that involved producing only one or two pages of prose per day, but they did it every day without fail! Even a page or two per day will result in a complete book within a year. A reading program should follow a similar pattern. By reading a relatively few pages daily, but on a strict regular basis, much material can be covered within a modest time frame. It is important, however, that a regular period for reading, no matter how short, be set aside at a scheduled time. Reading often is more effective if it is done on a day-to-day basis because it is easier to remember the previous reading than after a longer break! The important thing is the regularity and uniformity of the time period. Thirty minutes a day, on a regular basis, perhaps after dinner over a cup of coffee, can permit one to read 10-15 pages with good comprehension. Even that reading rate results in a book read each month or so.

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Books in Non-Written Form

Knowledge expands in geometric fashion, and this is visibly evidenced by the increasing number of books being published each year. With the profusion of books from which to choose, it is increasingly challenging for individuals to be able to keep up with the literature, even within a narrow specialty area. For an Army officer or NCO attempting to pursue a self-education reading program that addresses military history, biography, organizational dynamics, leadership, and geopolitics, to mention but some topical areas relevant to military career development and enhancement, is an almost insurmountable task. Today, staying abreast of the literature in one's professional field requires both determination and ingenuity. Fortunately, there are some productive possibilities available to the reader frustrated by time and schedule constraints.

Reading Books by Ear

A number of new books are recorded on tape soon after publication and many individuals have found that they can more effectively identify a time segment in a busy schedule that can be used for "listening" to a book, than they can find the opportunity for reading a book. Some individuals commute significant distances back and forth to work. Commuting time is often "blank" on non-productive time in that, other than listening to music on the car radio or engaging in light conversation with fellow commuters in a car poor situation, little is accomplished. Accordingly, commuting offers an excellent opportunity for listening to a book. In our hurried existence in modern times, spare time is in short supply, and its productive use requires careful planning and creative scheduling. The motivated will be able to accomplish this. From the standpoint of mechanical details, listening to a book may in some instances take less time than reading it. As a case in point, John Keegan's, *The Mask of Command* (1987), considered to be a very worthwhile volume for military readers, is 366 pages long. Assuming that in a 30-45 minute period set aside for reading on a daily basis, an individual might comfortably read and comprehend 10-15 pages. From three to four weeks would be required to finish the book. The recorded book requires eleven 1-1/2 hr. cassettes. If commuting time each day involves approximately 45 minutes of driving time each way (not an unusually long commute), one could listen to a complete tape each day. The book could be heard in its entirety within 11 working days (commuting days). Thus, the time normally consumed in driving to and from work can effectively be converted into "reading" time. Inasmuch as some individuals listen to music on a headphone set while walking or jogging for exercise, these times might also be used for listening to books. There are numerous opportunities in the week's schedule that might be used for this purpose. In this regard, some inspiration and insight might be obtained by reading

about the life of Frank Gilbreth, the pioneer time and motion engineer, in his biography, *Cheaper by the Dozen* (Gilbreth and Corey, 1948).

Recorded Books Available

As to the variety of books available on tape, Books on Tape, Inc., a leading publisher of recorded books, list more than 2,500 titles in their 1993 catalog. This total includes numerous biographies that would be relevant to the military profession such as accounts of the lives of Montgomery, Sherman, Lee, Patton, and George Marshall, to mention but some. Also listed in the catalog are a large number of books on military history, and military strategy. Some examples here might include, Harry G. Summers, Jr., *On Strategy* (1982), Basil H. Liddell Hart, *Strategy* (1967), and Herbert Essame, *Patton: A Study in Command* (1974), among other military classics. This publishing firm is currently adding more than 200 full-length recorded books to their list each year.

The recorded tapes in the catalog can either be purchased or rented. It might be possible for several individuals to form a pool. Each member of the pool could purchase a recorded book and share it with the others. The tapes are rented for 30 days. Two persons could each rent a recorded book, listen to the tapes over a two week period and then trade tapes with their partner. Either approach would reduce the unit cost per recorded volume to a very reasonable level.

Other Sources of Recorded Books

Aside from the publisher previously mentioned, there are other firms that produce recorded books, but there is some overlap in the titles available. There is another possibility with considerable potential, however.

For some years the U.S. Library of Congress has maintained a collection of books that are recorded and/or produced in braille for blind readers. They have also identified other library holdings of books that are printed in braille or recorded. At the present, the Library of Congress maintains a listing in their *International Union Catalog* of 153,570 volumes available in recorded form or in braille, either in their own holdings or in other libraries. Although these books are intended for blind readers, it is possible that the U.S. Army (or the Department of Defense) might be able to make appropriate arrangements to access these recorded books for the use of its personnel. Under some fee or royalty agreement it might even be possible to copy the recorded books for purposes of establishing an Army-wide lending library of books on tape.

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Other Approaches to Expeditious Reading

For some individuals, listening to books will never take the place of reading the written word. For such persons effective comprehension is better achieved through reading. As discussed earlier, however, there are practical limits on the amount of printed material that can be read and assimilated within a given time frame. One way of overcoming this constraint is to read condensed versions of relevant books.

Recognizing the problem of limited time facing individuals who seek to read a significant number of books, the publishers of *Reader's Digest* many years ago sought to publish volumes of much condensed versions of popular fiction and nonfiction books. This approach proved to be very successful and very popular with the reading public. While there were critics who asserted that condensed versions of books lost something of the full flavor of the story or exposition as intended by the author, the great majority of readers, however, have found the abridgments to be quite satisfactory and a practical means of reading a larger number of books than would normally be possible.

The problem is, of course, that the books that would be most relevant to the reading agenda of many military professionals are not available in condensed form. If the Army was persuaded that self education in the form of individual reading programs did contribute significantly to leadership development, it might well be able to solve that problem. While condensing books is a labor intensive enterprise, it is not that difficult or expensive to accomplish. It would be possible to contract with publishers for condensed versions of books deemed important for military readers. With publishers' agreements, there are many editorial services that could produce abridged books. Perhaps most promising, however, is the possibility of contracting with the Reader's Digest Association, Inc. to produce volumes of condensed books based on titles suggested by the Army itself. There would be a ready market for such a series of volumes and given the prospect of very large sales, the company might well be willing to produce such a series at no cost to the Army. The Reader's Digest Association, Inc. could very likely generate enough profit through the sale of volumes of condensed military books that they might be induced to produce volumes of condensed books on several different topics (e.g. biography, military history, military strategy and topics, etc.) that would be of interest to the military professional. Having large numbers of condensed books on military topics available would make possible a much accelerated reading program and this would, in turn, facilitate the leadership self-development process.

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The Reading Agenda as Basic Structure to Self-development

In order to be educationally profitable in a significant
way, in addition to being entertaining, a reading program should
be focused and structured. In effect, it should have a direction
and purpose. Essentially, this is what a college course,
classroom or correspondence, accomplishes in the schedule of
outside reading assignments. The same direction and purpose can
be attained in a self-development, individualized reading effort
in the form of a reading agenda.

The reading agenda is a sort of itinerary, as it were, in
the sense of being a route to learning something or a literary
trip in some topical area of knowledge. A reading agenda should
be well planned with the intent of the reader becoming reliably
informed and conversant with the topic, while maintaining a high
level of motivation and interest. The reading agenda may be
relatively specific in articulating particular items to be read
or it may only delineate some narrow range of book titles or type
of book. A truly effective reading agenda may well have a unique
orientation or perspective in terms of looking at a very special
class of literature, or looking at the literature in a particular
topical area in a very special way. An innovative agenda can
often be self-motivating for the reader, very "user friendly,"
and extremely productive in terms of information transferral.

Reading agendas can assume many configurations but they must
pique the intellectual curiosity of the reader, hold his or her
attention over a sustained period of time, and offer the
possibility of new insight and career relevant understanding.
Two proposed reading agendas will be detailed as possibilities.

A New Focus in Self-development Individualized Reading

Traditionally, the self-education component of the
leadership development program has tended to focus on the
successful application of leadership qualities within various
military contexts in times past. In effect, Army personnel learn
from the past by examining how different military leaders
achieved success in carrying out their missions. This approach
has proved to be instructive and effective. A similar approach
has been employed in some advanced educational situations such as
Graduate Business Schools in the form of "case-study" programs.
In all such instances, the premise is that the skills of
leadership can be better understood through the intensive study
of success. There are alternate approaches, however, that might
prove to be equally effective, if not more so. Such an
alternative approach might be coming to understand the skills of
leadership through the intensive study of failure.

The Study of Failure as a Means of Understanding Success

Just as cold is the absence of heat, so too is failure the absence of success. Both are essentially the two sides of a coin. The outcome can be understood using either approach. It is interesting to note, however, that the failure paradigm as opposed to the success paradigm, as a means of understanding an outcome is the preferred instructional orientation in some occupational settings. One case in point is the field of medicine. Although the "wellness" of patients is the ultimate goal of the physician, the curricula of medical schools do not emphasize wellness, but rather focus on the dynamics (i.e., the etiology) of illness. Courses in medical school often address diseases or categories of diseases (e.g., cardiological diseases and degenerative conditions). Special attention is given to the genesis of the disease or infirmity, the precipitating factors involved, the situational and contextual elements that facilitate the disorder, the dynamics of the disease, the exacerbating circumstances, the impact of the ailment on behavior, and the indicated ameliorative and remedial interventions. The study of the military enterprise would seem to lend itself readily to the failure instructional paradigm. Military failures may well outnumber military successes, and the variety of types or categories of failure are, perhaps, more numerous. The study of military failure offers the principal advantage of permitting the student to see the errors in judgment, the omissions in planning, the sudden critical contingencies, the unanticipated events and circumstances, the misinterpretations of indicators, and the flawed implementation of plans that may have significantly contributed to the failed outcome of the military mission, battle, or activity. Military success is often more generic and there is tendency to interpret success in more of a holistic fashion rather than piecemeal. Success is never dissected to the same degree as failure, and the direct linkages with leadership (or lack of it) may not be as apparent.

Learning about military success by focusing on military failure has, perhaps, two compelling advantages. Looking at the etiology of failure and the contributing factors provides a more intricate insight into the dynamics of outcome inasmuch as the constituents of failure are often somewhat easier to identify and document than are the processual components of success. A second advantage lies in the fact that failure, as with all misfortune, has a degree of intrinsic attraction. Accounts of misfortune (of whatever nature) warns us of the possible, sensitizes us to avoidance or transcending efforts, and affords a positive invidious comparison with our present circumstances. Failure for others represents what could be for us.

The detailed examination of military failure, far from reflecting a depreciating or deprecating posture, represents the most positive possible approach to task accomplishment. To

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prepare for a challenging and possibly hazardous trip or undertaking is to become acquainted with the mishaps and misadventures of others who have experienced the trip, and then to plan defensively to avoid or surmount those dangers. No matter what the context--business, science, exploration, or war--there is no better instructional lesson than the pattern of failure experienced by others. It is not by coincidence that instruction guides and manuals for mechanical devices very frequently include examples and illustration of things that may go wrong with the device, especially if it is used inappropriately. Learning is so frequently a matter of trial and error. Better it be someone else's error!

Rare is the instance of a individual who, having read an account of military failure (or any kind of failure for that matter), does not mentally construct scenarios of action that would have avoided the errors and miscalculations and led to victory. The study of military failure (indeed, the study of almost any type of misadventure) tends to motivate individuals to try to mentally "rewrite" the ending with a more satisfactory outcome. There is such a cultural mandate for success in our society that we are profoundly distressed in even reading about non-achievement, and often experience frustration when learning about the failure of others. This sense of frustration motivates us to contemplate the effective route to success. Thus, the study of military failure not only can be instructive in terms of demonstrating the mistakes that led to the non--successful outcome, but may also often serve as a strong motivational context that encourages the military reader to seek to understand better the dynamics of leadership that lead to military success. The study of the role of non-effective or inadequate leadership in military failure is simply another means of understanding the contribution of leadership to military success, but in a more analytical fashion.

The I*N*F*A*M*O*U*S Reading Agenda

Failure is not so much an event as a social process. It frequently involves a complex set of actors, factors, and circumstances. It possesses its own interactive dynamics and sometimes has its own characteristic "etiology." Failure operates at both the micro-and macro-social level, and the contributing factors and dynamics are not significantly dissimilar. Success is sometimes viewed within a kind of magical or mystical context and some individuals have difficulty in relating to, or identifying with, instances of military success about which they read. Failure has more of a commonplace and personal reference, and many can easily identify with this outcome. Accordingly, those who learn about failure tend to be especially attentive. Furthermore, such persons are likely to take special note of what factors contributed to failure, and

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what intervention efforts or different courses of action might have altered the outcome.

The "I*N*F*A*M*O*U*S" (Insight [into] Failure As a Means Of Understanding Success) reading agenda seeks to build on these advantages by offering the reader the opportunity to examine the process of failure in some detail. This will involve a set of readings looking at failure as an outcome in various types of social activities ranging from small group enterprises to large scale undertakings. Among the readings will be many different examples of military failure that will be examined both from practical and theoretical perspectives, with a special emphasis on causal linkages, and the situational and judgmental factors that played a significant role in such an outcome.

A particularly appropriate beginning in a reading agenda focusing on military failures might be *Military Misfortunes: The Anatomy of Failure In War* (Cohen and Gooch, 1990). This volume examines a diverse set of military failures ranging from the British Gallipoli campaign in 1915 to the defeat of the U.S. Eight Army in Korea in 1950. Not only do the authors provide a narrative overview of the battle or campaign, but they also include an analytical matrix for each situation that graphically diagrams the dynamics of the failure within the military command context. Thus, the book affords both historical and theoretical perspectives on military failure. Another seminal reading might be Perlmutter's (1978) classic article, "Military Incompetence and Failure: A Historical Comparative and Analytical Evaluation". Yet another highly relevant text might be *Military Incompetence: Why the American Military Doesn't Win* (Gabriel, 1986).

Another New Focus in Self-development

The Army self-education impetus has, in the past, tended primarily to address leadership in terms of the assessments, judgments, decisions, and actions of military leaders within the context of particular battles, campaigns, or missions. The individual leader and his leadership behavior is viewed, in effect, as being "imbedded" in the situation. The leader and the context are conceptualized as concomitant factors in the outcome of the military activity. Among military readers there has been less effort to see the leader outside of the military situation, or to divorce the leader from all of the contingencies that played a part in the outcome. Military readers have tended to direct their attention more toward the military career, or segments of the military career, of the leader and to overlook or ignore the larger life of the leader.

While this approach has proved to be utilitarian and durable, there are additional reading perspectives on leadership that might also be productive and offer insights that would be

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highly relevant in today's rapidly changing military context.
One new reading perspective might be to explore leadership more
in terms of the individual leader than simply the exercise of
leadership in a given military situation. The focus would be
more on the full life of the leader and not just the isolated act
or acts of leadership relative to a military crisis. It would
also address a wide array of leaders from many institutional
settings.

Leadership as the Product of Life Experiences

Leaders may be made and not born, but the initial
demonstrations of leadership skills may appear relatively early
in the lives of some individuals, and the origins of such skills
may be readily seen in particular youthful experiences and self-
efforts. Leadership skills involve complex competencies and
insights and the development of such skills may evolve slowly
over long periods of time. Leadership skills are seldom
accidental, and instead may represent significant expenditures of
time, effort, and energy on the part of the individual. In many
instances, very unusual efforts may be involved. By exploring
the lives of leaders in detail much may be learned about the
genesis of the skills that they so effectively used at some
critical point in their lives.

Leadership as Generic Process

The notion of leadership is to be found imbedded in all
major social institutional contexts. Thus, one can appropriately
speak of industrial or corporate leadership, educational
leadership, political leadership, religious leadership, military
leadership and, in some instances, even family leadership. A
slightly different term or label may be employed in the various
contexts, but certainly there is a strand of redundancy in the
meaning and function of the concept of leadership.

The generic aim of leadership is success, but there are
disparate end results or products of success from social
institution to social institution. Effective leadership in the
industrial setting yields success in the form of production and
profit. Successful leadership in the religious context
(especially an evangelical religion) translates into increased
membership, the conversion of sizeable members of non-believers,
financial security if not affluence, and enthusiastic faith among
the flock. Military leadership ultimately garners success on the
battlefield and the ability to impose political decision upon an
enemy. Whatever the form of success, however, the general
dynamics of leadership constitutes a social process. Whatever
the institutional context, there are certain processual
commonalities in the exercise of leadership, and accordingly,
there is something to be learned from the study of leaders of all
varieties.

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In the course of a military career, many different kinds of challenges must be addressed, not just combat challenges. In some instances, the challenges faced by the officer may more resemble corporate or political crises than military (command responsibility in the Tailhook scandal, for example). Accordingly, the full range of leadership behaviors may be relevant to the military context.

The F*U*L*L Reading Agenda

There are many historical figures from a variety of institutional settings (i.e., industry, religion, military, etc.) who have demonstrated remarkable leadership behavior in different kinds of crisis situations. In numerous instances, these individuals demonstrated an on-going pattern of leadership for much of their lives or careers. In effect, their leadership skills were very much evident in their customary decision making and task mastery behavior, and also in their ability to influence the behavior of others. Because of the exemplary nature of certain aspects of their lives, they might well serve as role models for persons wishing to develop their own leadership skills. Simply reading biographies or autobiographies of famous people is not the intent here. Rather the reader's attention should be directed to special kinds of biographical accounts where the author attempts to show the genesis and development of leadership potential in the biographee.

The "F*U*L*L" (Focus Upon Leaders' Lives) reading agenda would permit the reader to examine in detail the biographical experiences of a selected group of historical personages that contributed to their competencies to lead others and successfully alter the outcomes of critical social events. John F. Kennedy's book, *Profiles in Courage* attempted to do something not unlike this on a very small scale. This self-study program would include extensive readings and, where available, movies, videotapes, or other media that provide valid insights concerning the lives and accomplishments of such people that might effectively reinforce the readings. Some examples of the kind of leaders who might be featured could include General "Chinese" Gordon of the British Army, Martin Luther, and Andrew Carnegie to mention some.

Carnegie is a particularly apt example of business leadership where the requisite skills began to appear relatively early in life. Although he began life as a poor immigrant boy, he lived to build a great steel empire and became a multi-millionaire as a result of his motivation, shrewd business decisions, and remarkable corporate leadership. His leadership, however, was based on simple principles of interpersonal influence and persuasion. As one author (Carnegie, 1937:159) portrays it:

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Later in life when Carnegie became the
owner of a great steel corporation, he wanted
to sell steel railroad rails to the
Pennsylvania Railroad. The owner of the
railroad was J. Edgar Thomson. Carnegie
built a large steel mill in the area and
named it the "J. Edgar Thomson Steel Works."
As anticipated, Mr. Thomson was so flattered
that he ordered the steel rails for his
railroad from the factory that was named for
him.

His ability to influence others easily in an unobtrusive
fashion to carry out his wishes, had been evidenced relatively
early in life. The same author (Carnegie, 1937:159) relates
that:

Andrew Carnegie, the nineteenth century
Scottish-American steel tycoon was quite
adept at getting others to do things that he
wanted done. Before immigrating to America
he spent his boyhood getting others to do
things he wanted done. Before immigrating to
America he spent his boyhood in Scotland. As
a boy, he acquired a mother rabbit. The
rabbit proved to be very prolific and he soon
had a large litter of baby rabbits and no
food for them. He simply told the other boys
in his neighborhood that if they would gather
clover and dandelions to feed the rabbits, he
would name a rabbit for each of them. The
bunnies stayed well supplied with food.

Persons in positions of authority would be well advised to
note and study the leadership skills and strategies of Andrew
Carnegie. These skills served Carnegie well and helped him
achieve his considerable success in commerce. These same skills
should prove useful and effective in many contexts including the
military.

There are even military figures, some of whom are less well
known or even unknown to most army officers, who were possessed
of extraordinary skills and who demonstrated these skills in very
unusual circumstances or in a very singular fashion. One such
individual whose life is well worth close examination and can
serve as an admirable role model is Homer Lea (Alexander, 1993).
Mr. Lea was born in 1876 in Denver, Colorado, to middle-class
parents. As a child he either was injured or contracted a
disease, which left him disfigured. His spine was deformed to
the point that some called him a hunchback. He never grew beyond
five feet high and never weighed more than 88 pounds. He endured
pain most of his life and experienced blindness on a recurring

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basis, and had very poor eyesight all of his life. His consuming ambition was to be a great general and lead troops in combat.

Through great effort he attended Stanford University. He became an accomplished chess and poker player, and also became very proficient at fencing. He was turned down by West Point and by the regular army. Undaunted, he taught himself military tactics and strategy by studying historical accounts of famous campaigns and battles. Through a family friend, he learned Chinese. He offered his military services to the Protect the Emperor Society to help return the young ex-emperor Kuang-hsu to the throne and subsequently traveled to China. The 24 year-old, 88 pound, hunchback persuaded the revolutionaries of his military expertise and was commissioned as a lieutenant general in the revolutionary army and took command of a division of volunteers. He later led his troops in battle during the Boxer rebellion. Later he threw in his lot with Sun Yat-sen who made him Chief of Staff of the army in the new Republic of China. His enduring fame, however, rest on two prophetic books he authored, *The Valor of Ignorance* and *The Day of the Saxon*. The former accurately predicted the Japanese attacks on Hawaii, the Philippines, and Alaska in World War II. The latter foretold the decline of the British empire and World War II in Europe. The books attracted military readers around the world and are considered as masterpieces of military prophesy. His ashes rest in honor in Taipei, Taiwan, today. Surely, today's army officers could find inspiration, insight, and keys to leadership in the life of Homer Lea!

A Guidance Mechanism for Self-education

No matter how well intended or how highly motivated an individual might be in regard to a self-education reading program, it is extremely difficult to stay abreast of newly published material in relevant fields. It is equally difficult to assess the relative quality and value of newly published literature prior to reading it. Even the most relevant literature may sometimes have to be placed in proper context in order to be fully appreciated, much less prove to be fully utilitarian. Much literature, while individually informative and insightful, assumes a much more valuable priority in a reading program, if it is linked with appropriate collateral literature. In effect, the value of the integrated whole is much greater than the separated parts. There is a considerable body of "fugitive" (obscure sources and/or relatively unfamiliar) but valuable literature on many topics that would be accessed and read by individuals if they knew of its existence. Some portions of books and articles may be more valuable than others but potential readers may not be aware of this. All of these concerns and others can be effectively addressed with appropriate guidance that can be provided in a periodically published syllabus or literature guide in the form of a journal. An individual about

to embark on a automobile trip will likely consult a road map. Before journeying to another country, a traveler may well seek information about the country in a travel guide. Those who attempt to assemble a complicated toy welcome the guidance of a set of illustrated instructions. Generations of Americans planted and harvested their crops according to the weather, climate, and moon-phase guidance of the *Old Farmer's Almanac*. A reading agenda represents an intellectual "trip," and is no less deserving of a guide book.

The Functions of a Reading Guide Journal

A properly designed and edited journal as a reading guide, published on a regular basis, could accomplish multiple purposes. These might include:

1. Suggestions and advice on <u>how</u> to read. With proper guidance and instruction, individuals can often read, and assimilate what they read, faster and more effectively. Scholars, for example, who acquire such skills can review a body of literature far more quickly and thoroughly than the untrained. There are numerous short-cuts to the acquisition of such skills.

2. A series of topical areas (i.e. military history, foreign affairs, foreign militaries, organizational science, etc.) could be addressed in each issue in terms of recently published books and articles dealing with these topics. Such books could be critically reviewed with recommendation for reading. It is important that articles from a wide range of journals and periodicals be covered as well as books.

3. It would be desirable that annotated bibliographies as well as groupings of readings from different disciplines on a single topic also be included in some issues.

4. The journal could suggest and critically review other media forms such as movies, television specials, and documentary audio recordings to mention but some.

5. There are substantial numbers of very informative general and specialized newspapers, periodicals, newsletters, and annual reviews that are published, but are less well known or, perhaps, unknown to many Army personnel. The journal can serve to acquaint the readers with such publications.

6. The journal could invite and encourage responses and reactions to reviews, commentaries, short articles, letters, and other types of material that would

motivate reader involvement and submission. *Articles from readers who had used certain readings to their professional advantage and organizational benefit should be especially encouraged!*

7. One section of the journal should be used for listing public speeches, addresses, debates, etc. in the general vicinity of different military installations that would be of relevant interest to readers. For example, a public address on the situation in Bosnia given by some media newscaster at a nearby college could be listed. Attendance at such events can be informative and valuable.

8. In a similar fashion, correspondence and night courses offered at colleges and universities in the vicinity of various military installations should be listed.

9. Many military personnel may not know about the existence of certain libraries and archives in their area, or even how to use a library in the most effective way. The journal should address these topics.

10. The journal could also be a means for expanding vocabulary (having a short column on new words, for example), extending historical and geographical knowledge, and providing insights on current events.

11. Every issue could contain material specifically addressing the topic of leadership (i.e., case studies, historical precedents, or specific advice on the exercise of leadership, for examples).

12. A possible title for the guide or journal might well be *Resources: Self-development and Military Leadership.* While hardcopy publishing is desirable, as a less expensive alternative, it might be published as an electronic journal instead.

Advantages of the Resources Journal

In a previously underdemarcated area of personal inquiry, the *Resources* journal will provide intellectual reference points. By listing and reviewing literature (books and articles) relevant to various topics and topical areas, the individual now has some "navigational" indicators. The reader is made aware of the existence of literature resources pertinent to topics of interest, about which he or she might not normally have known. The reader also will have the basis for selectivity and prioritizing inasmuch as he or she will have the opportunity to consider the judgment of critical reviews. The reader will be better informed about the existence of a wide range of

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potentially useful periodicals, newspapers, monograph and
bulletin series, books, and archives. Also, the individual can
become more knowledgeable about ways of accessing the information
contained in such sources. The individual wishing to pursue an
ambitious program of self-development would now have available a
"user-friendly," guidance manual that would be up-dated on an on-
going basis.

The Collective Dimension of Self-development

Learning shares some characteristics with physical exercise.
This is, perhaps, not surprising inasmuch as learning is a kind
of mental exercise. One shared characteristic is that
individuals, as a general rule, do not like to exercise or learn
alone. Physical fitness instructors say that people who embark
on a physical fitness regimen must have a mirror so that they can
see themselves (as a substitute for other people being involved).
People who are most motivated in their physical fitness
activities are those who participate within the context of a
class. The same is essentially true with persons involved in
individualized learning programs. Sometimes they have difficulty
maintaining momentum on their own. To overcome this tendency an
effort should be made to insert a collective or interactive
element into the self-development pillar.

Toward this end, the circulation of *Resources* should be
voluntary as opposed to automatic. It should perhaps, be linked
to some type of "membership" in which Army personnel could join a
self-development club or society. In so doing, a context of
selectivity based on motivation is established, and a sense of
collective identity, even if minimal, is created. Although there
are strong benefits attendant to hard copy publishing, there are
also advantages to electronic publishing in the sense of
enhancing computer literacy. In either event there ideally,
should be an interactive dimension to the club or society. This
could, perhaps, be accomplished by a heavy emphasis on electronic
networking. On the assumption that many or most Army officers
have some degree of computer literacy and also have access to a
computer either at their office or at home, all members of the
club or self-development society should have their "bitnet"
address (or whatever electronic network to which they have
access) published in *Resources*. All contributions to the journal
should carry the author's "bitnet" address as well as unit
affiliation. Electronic communication between authors and
readers and among members should be encouraged. Members with
special reading agendas should advertise this fact in the journal
and invite electronic correspondence with other members with
similar interests. The goal should be to motivate members to
share information about readings, reaction to literature they
have read, and suggestions for further study (as examples). Such
information sharing would tend to promote a sense of group
identity and help motivate individuals to maintain a satisfactory

pace of effort and achievement in their self-development program.
Where readers are located in the same geographical area, or
stationed at the same post, the journal should encourage actual
small group meetings that might take the form of "brown-bag"
discussion groups, once-a-month "cocktails and conversation" get-
togethers to exchange information about mutual reading interests,
or joint sponsorship of occasional guest speakers. The group
dimension will promote cohesion, enhance the rewards of
"membership", and generate motivation,
if not competition.

Alternative Journal Initiatives

Although the inauguration of a separate journal to serve as
a reading guide for self-educated leadership development, is
something of an idealized and, thus, preferred arrangement, there
are less expensive alternatives. As a somewhat more modest
i itiative, arrangements could possibly be made to institute a
s ecial column or section in existing Army or Military
p riodicals or journals. Examples of such journals might include
Military Review, Parameters, or *Infantry Journal*. There are
numerous Army and Military periodicals and it is possible that
appropriate arrangements could be made to include such a column
or selection in a number of different periodicals and journals.
A variation on this theme is the possibility of developing a
supplement publication that could be attached to, or included
with, and distributed with one, some, or all of these
periodicals. It is not known whether or not these periodicals
would charge for including a column, section, or supplement, and
if so, what that cost might be.

The obvious major advantage to this type of a reading guide
publication is that a very large subscription list and an
extraordinarily wide distribution would be assured from the very
beginning. The start-up period would be minimized and much less
effort and expense would be involved in assembling the contents
for the first and subsequent issues. The resources, financial
and human, required to maintain a column or section as an on-
going publishing activity would be minimal.

The disadvantages to a column or section of a journal as an
alternative to a specific journal are equally obvious. A column
or section of a journal could include only a fraction of the
material that could be accommodated in a full issue of a journal.
The orientation and editorial emphasis of a column necessarily
have to be subordinate to overall editorial posture of the larger
journal. A column or section of a journal, no matter how well
intended or how perfected in presentation, could ever have the
impact of a newly inaugurated journal. A new journal would have
the freedom and capacity to develop in innovative and
experimental ways that might prove to be extraordinarily
influential and effective.

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Summary

The existing self-education pillar of the Army's leadership development program, with its heavy reliance on individual reading efforts, has proven to be surprisingly productive and versatile. Any learning system, however, should be able to profit from augmentation efforts that attempt to increase motivation on the part of participants, and to provide better structure and guidance for their reading and self-study activities. The augmentation strategies suggested in this discussion would contribute significantly to both those goals.

Most of the proposed initiatives are simple, relatively inexpensive, and easy to implement. They do not displace any existing learning efforts or mechanisms, nor do they radically depart from the traditional orientation and intention of the present program. The proposed reading guide journal would appear to be almost self-evident in its purpose and function. It would afford expert advice, purpose, and direction to the reader where little now exist. The two new reading agenda initiatives simply offer alternative perspectives on leadership that might well be provocative to the point of generating renewed enthusiasm and enlightening insight in individuals who may find their present reading program less than compelling or uninteresting. The two reading agendas could be featured and detailed in early issues of the journal. Other additional reading programs could be introduced as developed. The use of recorded books should make it easier for individuals to find time to "read" books by listening to them being read aloud. Otherwise unproductive time can be used for this purpose. Condensed versions of relevant books could greatly facilitate a reading program but in order to have such books made available some effort on the part of the Army itself would be required. In the instance of all of the initiatives discussed there is little to be lost, and considerable to be gained!

NEW DIRECTIONS IN SELF-DEVELOPMENT

> "We should train naval
> officers to be advocates,
> because the large
> peacetime decisions are
> made in dialogue, debate
> and argument."
>
> Admiral William J. Crowe, Jr. Chairman, Joint
> Chiefs of Staff, 1985-1989 (Admiral Crowe
> completed a doctorate in politics at
> Princeton)

The Contemporary Challenge of Leadership Development

The U.S. Army continually seeks to improve its leadership development system. This imperative is, perhaps, made more urgent by the tempo of technological and social change confronting the U.S. military today, and the demands of the increasingly diverse nature of the multiple mission capability that has been assigned to the Army. The process of properly developing leadership potential in Army personnel, traditionally, a problematic task, becomes even more challenging in the face of the situational context of today's military enterprise. It would appear that the Army's present leadership self-development program might be made more effective through some new directions in argumentation efforts.

The Delineation of Leadership

The problematic quality of leadership may be due to the fact that leadership, due to the diffusement of the concept, has never been particularly well defined. The looseness of the term might be inferred from the fact that some researchers have identified literally hundreds of behavioral elements associated with leadership. Korotkin, et al (1985), for example, articulated in excess of 200 so-called "job performance dimensions" that are related to leadership. The lack of specificity in the conceptual definition of leadership is demonstrated in the extraordinarily large body of social science literature that addresses leadership but with a notable lack of consensus in regard to the precise meaning of the term. Bass (1990:11), a leading researcher in the field, reviews and describes 7,500 references to research on leadership, in his comprehensive work on the topic, and notes the profusion of definitions.

In the absence of a definitional consensus, it may be productive to arbitrarily define and conceptualize leadership in an operational fashion as a means of exploring ways of making the process of leadership development more effective. In this regard, for purposes of operational definition, by conceptualizing leadership (or any behavioral nexus) as a social role there is the advantage of being able to also conceptualize *practical* means of attempting to inculcate this behavioral potential in others. Among other advantages of conceptualizing leadership as a social role is the ability to view leadership as simply a variation of ordinary behavior rather than having to idealize such behavior as extraordinary. In the instance of ordinary behavior, the optimal goal is effectiveness. Extraordinary behavior, tends to be perceived within a glamorized or glorified context and the expectations of such behavior may be attended with notions of superlative achievement.

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The notion of effectiveness of role behavior lends itself to attainable outcomes and evaluative measurement. Extraordinary behavior and superlative results tend to resist accurate assessment, much less quantification. In effect, it is more pragmatic to conceptualize behavioral phenomena in a conventional fashion that lends itself to socialization, accomplishment, and practical appraisal. As a simple illustration, it is easier and more desirable to teach a soldier to do his job as ordered even if it means risking his life, than to try to teach him to be "gallant" or "courageous." The results will likely be just as utilitarian, but perhaps more satisfactory in terms of overall outcome.

Perceptual Adjustments to the Concept of Leadership

The operational conceptualization of leadership as a social role requires four perceptual adjustments, but yields a number of advantages. The perceptual adjustments required include:

1. *Leadership must be viewed as conventional (albeit exemplary) rather than extraordinary behavior.* To some degree, from the standpoint of the U.S. Army and American culture in general (and some other cultures as well), the concept of leadership essentially solidified at some point in the past, into a traditional, rather idealized model of exemplary military chieftanship and superintendence. In certain contexts the term has been used to describe some paragon model of authority, not infrequently linked to courage, moral integrity, and success or accomplishment. In effect, the leader as "hero." This traditional model of leadership has even, on occasion, been based on the assumption that leadership tended to derive from charismatic authority (the "halo" effect) as exemplified by the "born" leader or "natural" hero, both of whom can serve as suitable role models. It is because of this model of leadership that members of the military have been encouraged to study and emulate great successful and heroic military leaders of the past. Regardless of how worthy of emulation were these historic role models, it is necessary to move to the conventional behavior model of leadership if effective means of teaching and training leadership skills are to be implemented.

2. *Leadership must be viewed as the mastery of complex tasks, frequently using others to accomplish these tasks.* In this sense, leadership involves an accurate assessment of the situation, a plan to productively address it, and the capability of effectively motivating others to implement the plan. This is highly consistent with Army doctrine which states that, "in battle, you must inspire your soldiers to do things

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against their natural will-possibly to risk their live-to carry out missions for the greater good of the unit, the Army, and the country" (FM 22-100:1). In short, leadership essentially means using logical means to get other people to do seemingly illogical things! Leadership then relies heavily on social skills.

3. *Leadership must be viewed not only as grandiose task mastery at the level of an enormous military battle but also as a complex skill operationalized at an everyday level of task accomplishment involving interpersonal interaction.* There are many professional individuals who exercise a range of leadership skills on a day-to-day basis. There are persons in numerous vocational spheres--business persons, physicians, engineers, scientists or architects or designers who are in clear "command" of their craft or trade or artistic endeavor, who, in a sense, set the pace for others in the same field. Leadership that is exercised on a more routine or practical basis or level can be thought of as *grounded* leadership. Unlike the assumptions concerning the origins of idealized leadership, *grounded* leadership lends to derive from occupational expertise (superior technical knowledge), forceful and persuasive "management" of subordinates (highly perfected interpersonal skills), and situation mastery (highly transferrable competencies, improvisational skills, and creative problem solving).

4. *Leadership must be viewed a complex competence based on a set of definable roles that can be effectively inculcated into individuals.* Learning a social role or roles involves mastering certain kinds of skills. Assuming generally average intelligence, aptitude, physical capabilities, and motivation, leadership is teachable and learnable on the part of most individuals. It is difficult, if not impossible to transmit leadership skills directly inasmuch as they represent the cumulative and successful integration of numerous intermediate skills. It is at this level of skill development that leadership can be encouraged and nourished. The ability to play a very elaborate social role, such as leader in a productive and compelling fashion, results from the perfection of numerous subordinate or supporting skills and capabilities that, when appropriately blended, provide the requisite complex competence.

Leadership as Social Role

A social role is the set of behavioral expectations that exist for the occupant of a given social status. An individual

who comes to occupy an authority status in a social structure is
expected to demonstrate leadership (i.e. behave in an exemplary
fashion). Following this mode of conceptualization as a point of
departure, a more detailed status and role analysis of the
various positions of authority in Army organizations should yield
more specificity concerning the role expectations of such
positions, and this should provide a more sensitive understanding
of the dynamics of the leadership development process, and
additional insights concerning ways in which the process might be
made more effective.

Leadership as a Variable Requirement

In theory, all officers' positions are leadership statuses
in Army organizations. Clearly, there are differential degrees
of leadership requirements attendant to various types of
positions. Line positions, in general, call for a more exacting
order of leadership behavior than do staff positions. There are
also variations in expectations of leadership among line
positions as well. Positions that control relatively automous
units may call for a more exacting calibration of leadership than
units that are more component to larger units. There are also
differential expectations of leadership attendant to different
ranks. There are even different levels of leadership
expectations linked to different kinds of units. All such
variations in leadership expectations may be the source of role
confusion or role ambiguity.

The variations in leadership expectations attendant to
different types of positions result more from the diversity of
role expectation sources than from the dissimilarity of the jobs
themselves. The behavioral expectations constituent to the
social role that goes with a given status may derive from several
sources. There are formal expectations regarding leadership
behavior that are linked to superior positions such as a
commanding officer. There are also expectations that derive from
collateral positions, a peer unit leader, for example.
Additionally, there are expectations concerning leadership
behavior that come from subordinates. Such expectations are no
less legitimate than those that emanate from a superior position.
For every expectation there is a reciprocal expectation; for
every privilege there is a reciprocal responsibility. Statuses
and their attendant roles do not generally exist in isolation.
Rather because of reciprocal linkages with various other statuses
and roles, it is possible to think of a leadership position as
part of an elaborate role set. Each role set houses a complex
pattern of reciprocal behavioral expectations. A role set is the
potential model of interaction involving the occupational
practitioner and all of the co-workers with whom one may have to
cooperate or work together as a team in the course of pursuing
the vocation. To really understand one's job, one should be
familiar with the role set and the attendant reciprocal

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expectations. The role set of physician in a hospital is illustrated to provide a visual example of role set (See Figure 1). In this role set diagram it will be noted that the physician, in a hospital context, relates to and interacts with several persons -- patient, patient's spouse (or other relative), nurse, and consulting physician -- on a presumably frequent and regular basis. These persons make up a kind of "inner circle" in the role set. The physician also, however, may have to interact with a variety of other individuals from time to time and, accordingly, also relates to them in a structured fashion. For a physician to appropriately play his or her professional role, he or she must know how to act (in both a technical and social manner) toward all of the persons in the role set. Component to this understanding is being aware of the expectations regarding the physician held by all of the individuals that make up the role set.

In many, if not most, vocational fields the individual who moves into any type of occupational status receives very inadequate training or orientation in regard to the specific inventory of behavioral expectations he or she will encounter in attempting to play the role. Such briefings as they do receive often focus primarily on expectations that derive from superior positions. Peer expectations and subordinate expectations are frequently ignored or minimized. In actual practice, there may even be multiple "layers" of expectation sources. Leadership positions in the Army, with their complex patterns of expectations constituent to the elaborate role set that goes with the status, should appropriately require very comprehensive training and familiarization with the specific behavioral requirements inherent in the role set of their assigned position.

Even before learning about the exact role requirements that go with a particular position assignment, however, individuals should become familiar with the role and status paradigm. They must especially come to understand in detail the various behavioral expectations that are component to the authority status and to the social role of leadership that attends it. As part of this understanding, the individual has to be familiar with the structure of the role set pattern and the way in which the role expectations may vary depending on their source. *The matter is complicated by the fact that formal expectations from different sources may not necessarily be similar or even congruent.* Adding even further to the complexity of behavioral expectations and role behavior is the presence of informal expectations also from different sources. Often imbedded in a formal social structure is an informal structure; this informal structure has its own statuses, roles (behavioral expectations), and normative system. An individual must have familiarity with, and understanding of, all of this as a prerequisite to appropriate leadership *role* playing when occupying a position of authority.

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Figure 1.
Illustration of a partial role set
(a physician in a hospital setting)
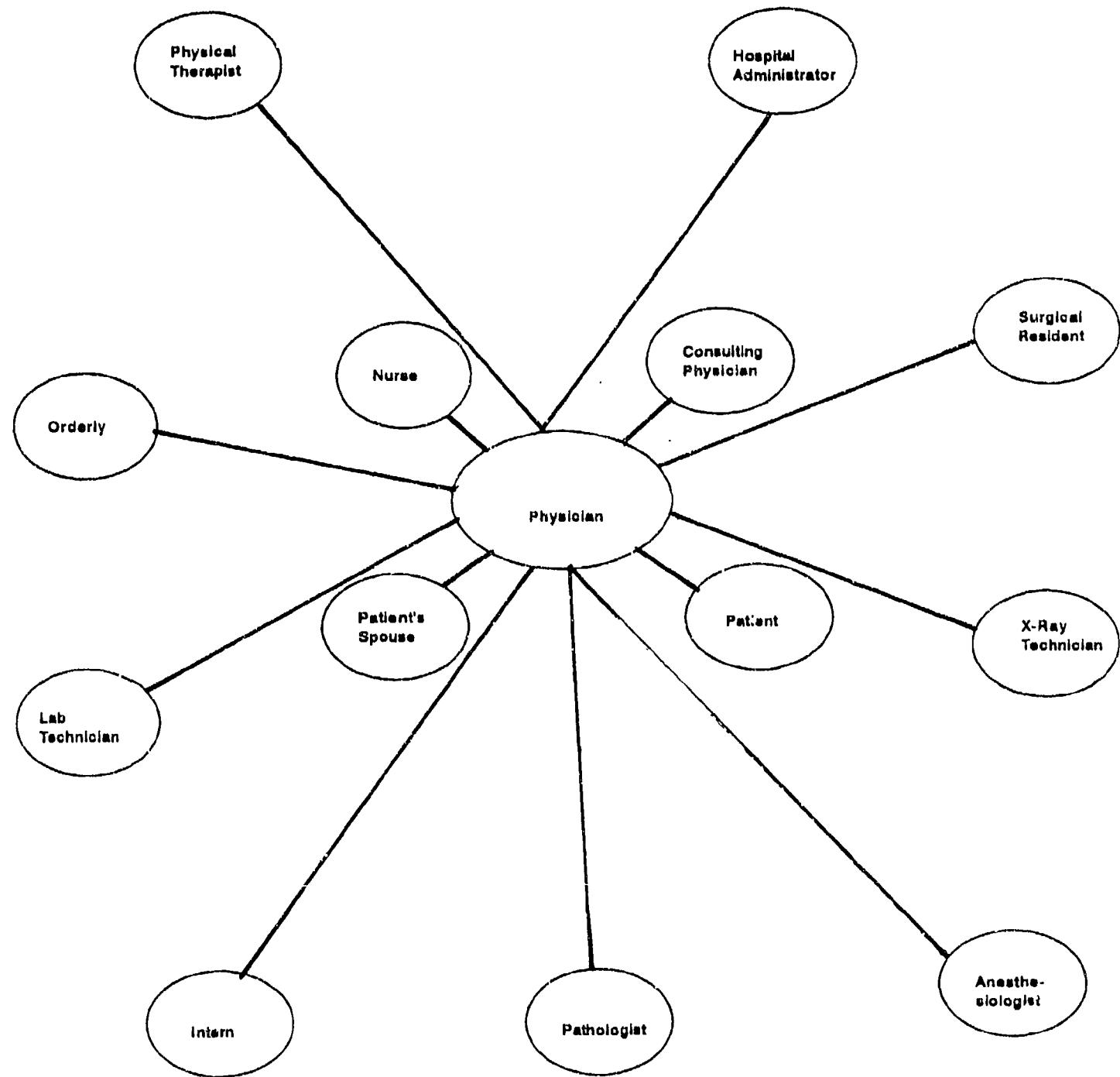
Advantage of Conceptualizing Leadership as Social Role

By viewing leadership as a social role, it is much easier to recognize and appreciate the import of linkages between an individual occupying a social status in an organization and numerous other organizational statuses occupied by other persons. Different statuses have different role sets. Part of the process of training people for a job involves teaching them about their potential role set. If they properly understand the role set and the nature of the linkages, then they will be better able to do their job properly. In way of military example, the mission of the Army is now in the process of significant change. The Army may be called upon to fight "bush" wars, serve as observers to peace keepers, undertake humanitarian expeditions, protect minority populations in some other countries, or even be involved in drug interdiction efforts. The social role of the Army officer or leader will necessarily change along with Army mission. One of the very best ways to teach individuals about their changing leadership roles is to emphasize changes in their role sets and focus on their relationships with others in the role set, particularly new categories of people (e.g., State Department Personnel on humanitarian missions; United Nations Staff personnel or members of foreign militaries on peace keeping assignments; or even DEA officials on drug interdiction expeditions). Using the social role set as a leadership teaching de ce is analogous to the actor in a play perfecting his or her own acting part by learning something about every other character in the play, and how his or her part relates to all the other parts.

Many researchers have convincingly shown that by using status and social role as units of analysis, or units of behavior, it is relatively easy to articulate the parameters of a given job or position. Accordingly, it is easier to socialize the newcomer, and it is easier for the newcomer to understand what is expected and how it is to be accomplished. Status and social role analysis is essentially a "user friendly" means of describing a job, learning a job, or performing a job. A good example of the facility with which an executive level position can be dissected, articulated, or explained in detail can be found in Mintzberg's classic research on managerial work (1973). Figure 2 for example, shows his social role breakdown of the corporate chief executive position. Using such an approach would obviously facilitate teaching or learning about the job inasmuch as the various groupings of responsibilities and tasks could be addressed and socialized separately.

Viewing jobs or positions through the perspective of social role is highly relevant to the Army's use of the concept of tasks as means of defining work. Social roles or rather sub-roles are frequently a specification or expectation for accomplishing some

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FIGURE 2

Mintzberg's articulation of the managerial social roles of a
corporate chief executive.

CORPORATE CHIEF EXECUTIVE
(FORMAL AUTHORITY AND STATUS)

Managerial Roles

Interpersonal Roles	Informational Roles	Decisional Roles
Figurehead	Monitor	Entrepreneur
Leader	Disseminator	Disturbance Handler
Liaison	Spokesman	Resource Allocator Negotiator

Derived from: Mintzberg, Henry, The Nature of Managerial Work.
New York: Harper & Row, Publisher, 1973.

task or related group of tasks. The Army, for example, often
discusses assignments and missions in terms of task conditions
and task standards, or satisfactory task performance. Again,
referring to Mintzberg's articulation of managerial social roles
in Figure 2, his typology refers implicitly, if not explicitly,
to specific tasks or assignments (or groups or bundles of tasks).
Thus, the social role perspective is a very pragmatic perspective
in the sense that a comprehensive role analysis of a position
generates a relatively definitive array of essential tasks to
accomplish the job. When the role description of a position is
fully developed, there is also a good residual understanding of
training needs and goals, a clear picture of job objectives, and
some broad standards or behavioral guidelines by which job
performance can be assessed. The notion of status and role is
sufficiently simple and understandable that it lends itself very
well to self-education. People can learn about their job by
reading about it!

Inasmuch as the status and social role paradigm is
essentially a theatrical conceptualization, it shares many of the
characteristics of the stage presentation. Parts (jobs) can be
easily understood, they can be easily learned, they can be easily
modified, and they can be performed by a number of different
actors (individuals) with a high degree of uniformity. They
readily permit the interchangeability of persons, and are
essentially the same regardless of location or context.

Finally, the notion of status and role is highly compatible
with the idea advanced later in this discussion, of trying to
perfect capstones or supernumerary skills by enhancing
intermediate supporting skills. It is doubtful that an
individual can be directly trained to be a great actor or
actress. It is possible, however, to train actors and actresses
in such a way that they will develop all of the appropriate stage
and performance skills necessary to become great at acting. The
same is true for leadership.

The Social Role as Socialization Mechanism

Status and roles are widely used as mechanisms of
socialization. With children, for example we break up our social
expectation of them into manageable "bundles" and attempt to
inculcate correct behavior into them piecemeal. We teach them
the correct social role for the dinner table, the correct social
role when attending church, the correct social role when playing
with other children, etc. Ultimately the child, as he or she
grows up, is able to appropriately consolidate and integrate all
of the various role segments, and comes to act as a member of
society in a total fashion.

Status and role are used as socialization mechanisms for
adults. Persons entering an occupation are usually instructed in

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the requirements of the job and the expectations bearing on them when occupying that occupational status. The newcomer learns the role of the bank teller, or the taxi driver, or the store salesperson. Again, role instruction may be piecemeal at first, and later consolidated and integrated. In effect, he or she may learn the job, task by task.

Training individuals for particular occupational specialties or even for specific tasks within the job using role and status as the means has usually proved to be an expeditious, effective, and durable means. Some critics, however, have felt that, while the role and status approach to training and indoctrination may be adequate for relatively superficial behavior; training a salesclerk to wait on customers and sell cloth goods, perhaps would not be suitable for training individuals for complex tasks and/or tasks that may call for extraordinary motivation and effort. The role and status approach would not be suitable for teaching leadership, for example. Research shows that this criticism is not valid, however.

Jack Haas, in his research on high steel ironworkers and how they deal with the danger of the job and the fear of working at those great heights (1977), found that it was not necessary to try to recruit individuals who had a minimal fear of high places. There were no special personal qualities or attributes needed in order to be able to do the job. On the contrary, most if not all of the workers were, indeed, fearful of the dangers of working the high steel. As the individuals learned the appropriate work role for high steel ironworkers, and they come to accept, and be accepted by, the informal workgroup, they also learned not to show their fear. In a kind of collective "definition of the situation" they all mutually "disavowed" their fear. The fact that their fellow workers did not display fear made it easier for individual workers to control their own fear. They did attempt the situation in terms of trying to minimize the dangers of the job. This they did by testing fellow workers to be sure they knew their job and were not a danger to others. They also tried to accommodate bad weather with proper precautions and equipment, and would not cooperate with supervisors who were not sensitive to dangerous conditions. Properly conforming to the norms of the work role, the ironworkers collectively submerged their fear and went about their job. Thus, it would appear that role and status training can even accommodate the emotional dimensions of a job.

There is also research evidence that role compliance operates not only at a superficial level. Once an individual is properly indoctrinated in terms of his or her work role, he or she is inclined to follow the behavioral dictates of the role at even the informal as well as the formal level. Some research (Blake, 1973; Blake and Butler, 1976) has rather compellingly demonstrated that many individuals will risk their lives or even die in the process of conforming to the implicit expectations of their role, and will do so in a highly idiosyncratic fashion. In this research on winners (often posthumously) of the

Congressional Medal of Honor, it was revealed that enlisted winners of the medal had often engaged in some type of courageous behavior that involved protecting or saving fellow soldiers. The primary concern of the medal winner had apparently been regard for his buddies. This persuasion undoubtedly grew out of informal socialization within the group and the attendant small unit cohesion. The enlisted individual was conforming to the informal dictate of his soldierly role. On the other hand, the research showed that officers who were awarded the Congressional Medal of Honor had generally engaged in some courageous behavior that could be defined as "war winning" or attempting to carry out the mission. The officers had tried to follow orders and accomplish the mission. They were displaying leadership or exemplary behavior, and it suggests that the individuals were attempting to conform to the expectations of their role as officers and examples to others.

The findings of such research would seem to indicate that relying on status and role as mechanisms of socialization even for leadership training can be efficacious and dependable. The challenge that attends this conceptual approach to training has to do with communicating the exact role specifications of the job to the individual who will occupy the status.

Inappropriate Role Playing as Leadership Handicap

If the individual is familiar with the status/role paradigm of analysis and if the individual is completely aware of all of the role expectations, from all sources, that are attendant to his or her status position and if the individual has the basic competencies to fulfill the various expectations, then effective leadership role playing is possible.

There are potential handicaps or challenges to such effective leadership role playing, however, operating at different rank levels. At the lower rank levels, the challenge of leadership tends to revolve around three problem areas. Frequently there is a lack of information regarding the specificity of role responsibilities that are component to a given status. Also, sometimes there is an inadequate understanding of the nexus of overlapping expectations that derive from the role set that attends a given status. The major type of leadership role challenge facing individuals in the lower rank levels is that of trying to reconcile satisfactorily inconsistencies in role expectations. Instead, the individual is faced with role confusion and ambiguities.

At the middle rank levels, inappropriate role playing is more the result of unawareness of changes in role expectations that have occurred and, in some instances, an insensitivity to the nuance of new role requirements and critical responses from others in the role set. Also, flexibility in meeting new role

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expectations is a problem for some individuals. The field grade
officer who can't seem to grasp the political reality of sexual
harassment in the military work place is an example of the
former, and a male officer who cannot satisfactorily accept
female officers in certain types of jobs, much less the
possibility of having to tolerate homosexuals in the military,
might be an illustration of the latter.

At the senior ranks, handicaps to effective role playing may
well be the product of not having the appropriate "soft" skills
to meet demands of high military rank. The good combat commander
does not necessarily make a good Pentagon planner. Alexander
Haig and Gen. Colin Alexander Powell displayed highly perfected
social and diplomatic skills in discharging the responsibilities
of their job, but many high ranking officers may not be able to
do so.

Skills and Leadership Development

Skills represent the proficiencies, competencies, and
expertise necessary to perform certain tasks. Inasmuch as tasks
are differentially complex, skills also exist at different levels
of intricacy. Skills are cumulative in the sense that some
skills build upon other skills. A set of simple skills may form
the basis for more complex skills. Complex skills, in turn may
combine and integrate into capstone or supernumerary skills such
as leadership.

This progression of skill acquisition can perhaps be better
visualized with a detailed example within a generic skill area as
detailed in Figure 3. In the area of verbal skills, for example,
the pre-school child, acquires certain *basic* verbal skills in the
form of learning how to talk, how to pronounce certain words, and
in some instances, some limited ability to read and write. In
the course of formal education, the emphasis is on *developmental*
verbal skills. The basic skills of speech and writing are
further perfected. The child's vocabulary is expanded, and
spelling, enunciation, and speaking expression are all improved.
Formal education during college and professional or graduate
school offers the individual the opportunity to acquire even more
sophisticated and more *specialized* verbal skills. The college
student gives oral class reports, engages in classroom
discussions, and unstructured debate. In certain professionally
oriented, upper level higher education, the student gains
expertise in various kinds of specialized verbal skills.
Learning cross-examination techniques in law school, or learning
the principles of homiletics in a religious seminary would be
examples of this.

FIGURE 3.
THE "ARCHITECTURE" OF SKILLS

F. Capstone or supernumerary skills are the product of the integration of compound skills, and their appropriate application.

E. The possession of various compound skills greatly expedites task mastery. An attorney may find that expertise in verbal skills may be very useful in the courtroom.

D. Certain activities tie together or bind certain "bundles" of facilitative skills and create new competencies.

C. Most developmental skills can be "sharpened" or perfected through various means and in the process the individual may become quite adept in terms of some facilitative skills.

B. In primary school, the child learns to speak using correct enunciation and expression. The college student engages in discussion and debates. The law student learns to "cross-examine" and presents arguments.

A. The pre-school child learns to talk and to speak in a coherent fashion, and sometimes even to read aloud.

LEADERSHIP
(an example of capstone skills)

PUBLIC DEBATING COMPETENCE (an example of bridging skills)
(Perhaps derived from membership on a debating team, or active participation in a civic campaign.)

COMMUNICATIVE SKILLS — voice control and delivery
THEATRICAL SKILLS — the perfection of presentational style
INTERPERSONAL SKILLS — vocabulary development
INSIGHT SKILLS — informational organization

FORMAL EDUCATION

SPECIALIZED VERBAL SKILLS (PROFESSIONAL + GRADUATE SCHOOLING)

SOPHISTICATED VERBAL SKILLS (COLLEGE)

SIMPLE VERBAL SKILLS (PRIMARY/SECONDARY SCHOOLING)

PRE-SCHOOL PERIOD

BASIC VERBAL SKILLS

(F.) CAPSTONE OR SUPERNUMERARY SKILLS

(E.) COMPOUND SKILLS (examples)

LEADERSHIP ENHANCING SKILLS
(G.)

(D.) BRIDGING SKILLS

(C.) FACILITATIVE SKILLS (examples)

(B.) DEVELOPMENTAL SKILLS

(A.) BASIC SKILLS

G. These types of skills may derive from many sources, sometimes seemingly disparate or alien to competence development in a particular area. Singing, for example, and especially structured signing such as in a choral group may well contribute to the development of verbal skills because such singing emphasizes enunciation and voice projection.

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Beyond the context of formal education, and sometimes as component to college or graduate school, individuals may have the opportunity to further refine or perfect some of their developmental skills. In the area of verbal competencies, for example, some persons make efforts to develop better voice control, to improve their vocabulary significantly, or to effect a more convincing and compelling presentational style. In doing this they promote what might be termed *facilitative* or perfecting skills. Such facilitative skills may still be largely disconnected or seemingly without focus unless some catalyst mechanism in the form of linking proficiency brings them together. Such a linking proficiency should be labeled as a *bridging* skill.

A *bridging* skill is a competency that aids an individual in linking or connecting disparate skills into a more applicable or productive "bundle" of skills. An example here might be an individual who has developed impressive verbal skills in terms of vocabulary, voice control, and presentational style. The same individual, because of some particular educational or occupational experiences, has also developed some keen abilities in reasoning, logic, and information organization. These disparate skills or competencies have no compelling linkage or immediate application. If, however, the individual takes a course in Public Debate and then subsequently joins a Debating Team, he or she will be able to effectively link or "bridge" the verbal competencies and the proficiencies in reasoning and logic. The individual will now acquire debating skills. The debating skill serves as a catalyst for the other skills and is, therefore, a *"bridging"* skill. Debating skill is transferrable and very utilitarian. An individual who takes up sales work, for example, would find skill in debating to be extremely helpful in convincing a customer to buy a particular product. Bridging skills then help to make certain competencies and proficiencies more useable and, therefore, more valuable.

The integration of various facilitative competencies brought about by the focusing effect of a bridging skill results in a *compound* proficiency or skill. In the instance of the *verbal* area, the individual comes to possess a compound facility in communicative expertise. Multiple compound competencies, in turn, provide the foundation for *capstone* skills such as leadership or professionalism. Leadership is based on compound skills and, as the Army has so well documented in its various publications, is certainly multi-faceted. Because of the complexity of competencies such as leadership, it is difficult if not impossible to *directly* develop this ability. Rather, it must be nourished and cultivated through the *process* of skill accretion and augmentation. In effect, the capstone skill is developed indirectly by facilitating the development of foundation or supporting competencies.

A good illustration of this process might be that of medicine. A "brilliant" or "outstanding" physician cannot be readily developed in a direct fashion. Rather, medical schools seek to develop in medical students, the strongest possible foundation and supporting skills. The assumption here is that the medical student who receives very thorough foundation medical training, will have the necessary skills to become an outstanding, if not brilliant physician, if properly motivated, challenged, and given the appropriate context.

In the case of military leadership, the real potential for strengthening developmental effort, perhaps, lies in the area of indirect skill cultivation. As articulated in Figure 3, there are a variety of activities and competencies that contribute to leadership development. These can be generically conceptualized as *leadership enhancing skills*.

Leadership Enhancing Skills

Skills, proficiencies, competencies, or other forms of process or task mastery usually do not develop singularly, but often evolve as linked or related sets of capabilities. Learning to operate a sail-boat or even an automobile, or to play certain games like golf, may involve acquiring multiple skills almost simultaneously. In other instances, some individuals find that they can improve, reinforce, augment, or perfect certain key skills or abilities by taking up or acquiring specific supportive capabilities. Various kinds of athletes - boxers, or football or basketball players - for example, have found that their skills as an athlete are improved or invigorated by taking up other activities and acquiring other supportive skill including such unusual proficiencies as ballet dancing. Competition shooters may take up weight lifting in order to strengthen their arm muscles thereby improving their shooting skills. Even certain performing and intellectual skills may well be improved or facilitated by the acquisition of various supportive skills. In general, the major or key competencies that can be strengthened or facilitated by appropriate supportive activities are the facilitative skills, the bridging skills, and the compound skills inasmuch as they are not infrequently multi--faceted when operationalized. The supportive competencies can be conceptualized as *enhancing* skills because they help support, augment, or perfect the other categories of skills and, thus, encourage the development of leadership skills. Some enhancing skills are essentially physical and contribute to manual dexterity. Surgeons, for example, sometimes try to acquire proficiency in various forms of sewing techniques that involve complex stitching, or competency in fly-tying, all as a means of enhancing their operating skills for surgery. Some dentists acquire lapidary skills because such skills have a certain relevance for dentistry. Attorneys sometimes become involved in Little Theater or other kinds of community theater as a means of

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perfecting their speaking ability and their dramaturgical skills, both which have enhancing application for their legal performance in the courtroom. It is even claimed that skill in certain forms of athletics, or certain kinds of games likes chess, have relevance for other types of vocational skills.

Self-development of Leadership Enhancing Skills

Learning should be structured but not regimented. This is particularly so with individual learning or self-development because structure affords guidance, direction, and pace whereas regimentation can erode motivation and impede selective discovery. The concept of *facilitative* skills and *bridging* skills as *leadership enhancing skills* offers some provocative learning opportunities, and the possibility of regaining momentum in the tasks of cultivating and amplifying both individual and team leadership on the part of Army Officers and NCO's. The creation of a truly productive program that seeks to encourage the acquisition and/or refinement of capabilities and proficiencies that will facilitate the exercise of leadership necessarily proceeds on the basis of certain axiomatic principles. These might include:

1. Learning is infinite! There are always new and useful things to learn. There is no such thing as total closure or limits in learning about anything. Learning is an on-going, life long, continuous process.

2. Learning is cumulative and new knowledge or information multiplies at an increasing rate. The expansion of personal knowledge extends behavior (mental and physical) capabilities. *Any* new knowledge expands an individual's horizon.

3. Learning is generalizable. Knowledge or information derived from one area of behavior has application and utility in other areas. Even seemingly useless knowledge may ultimately help solve a problem.

4. There is no compelling reasons to believe that military leadership is qualitatively different from any other form of institutional leadership-political, industrial, or religious. Some might argue that military leadership is different because the potential for combat is there with the threat of death or injury, and that military leadership necessarily involves or requires some unique set of qualities or traits because of this. Many occupational specialties, however, may involve danger or the possibility of death or injury. Such occupations might include law enforcement, firefighting, or even high steel ironworking as discussed earlier. People in these lines of work are successfully socialized to accommodate fear and danger

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effectively as a component element of the job. As in the military, leadership in such occupations involves motivating subordinates to carry out their assigned tasks in spite of fear and anxiety.

Leadership, like professionalism or diplomacy, is a *capstone* skill, a nexus of various competencies and proficiencies that is exercised in the form of a particular behavior mode and responsive capability, characterized by a patterned dramaturgical posture and interactive repertoire. As discussed earlier, the effective exercise of leadership may be encouraged and embellished through the acquisition and use of various *bridging* and *facilitative* skills, collectively known as *leadership enhancing skills*.

There is no exhaustive list of *leadership enhancing skills*. The inventory of such skills tends to change with the military mission and the concomitant variation in leadership mode required. In that sense, the list is always under revision although there is some consensus on certain skills. In a recent position paper, one behavioral scientist (Siebold, 8 April, 1993:14) suggested three categories of skills/competencies that promote or facilitate the exercise of leadership. While not explicitly labeling such skills as leadership enhancing skills, it is clear that he perceived these as having that function. The skill categories suggested included specialized technical skills (computer literacy or foreign language proficiency), personal generic skills (planning skills, creative and innovative skills, or metacognition), and interpersonal and unit skills (teaching/counseling skills, team development skills, or system management skills). Such skills would appear to be utilitarian and would certainly qualify as leadership enhancing skills. The range of possible leadership enhancing skills is much more extensive and merits an expanded typology. Such a typology appears in Table 1.

Inasmuch as capstone skills such as leadership, professionalism, or diplomacy are the end product of a long, complex, and cumulative competency accretion process, it is difficult, if not impossible, to effectively develop such skills directly. Rather, it may be more productive to approach leadership development indirectly by encouraging the acquisition and/or perfection of leadership enhancing skills which, in turn, nourish and promote the middle segments of the larger developmental process. The problem then would appear to be the need to provide opportunities for officers and NCO's to acquire leadership enhancing skills. As these skills aid in strengthening other competencies, the individuals must come to understand better how to bring various competencies to bear on specific types of problems and challenges. In effect, people must learn how to use their skills in the most effective way.

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Table 1.
Typology of Leadership Enhancement Skills

Enhancement Skill Categories	Example of Enhancement Skills	Functions of Enhancement Skills
Introspective (self examination)	Skills in logic reasoning, ethical judgement	Clarifying thought processes, defining problems aiding decision making
Specialized Technical	Computer literacy, foreign language proficiency	Technical competencies expedite and facilitate leadership role
Interactive	Various types of communication skills	Aids in transferring information, conveying intent, giving orders
Supervisory (direct management)	Various types of interpersonal skills, emotion control	Helps in motivating and directing subordinates, counseling, maintaining discipline
Coordinate (indirect management)	Various type of business and organizational skills	Facilitates organizing and directing people and resources, managing, organizational processes
Planning	Various types of creative and innovative skills, skills in metacognition	Aids in developing tactics, strategy, and doctrine.

The initiative of attempting to cultivate leadership enhancing skills in officers and NCO's is not intended to replace existing efforts toward leadership development. Rather its purpose will be to supplement and support the existing programs of leadership self-development. It will offer opportunities to acquire new competencies and proficiencies that will, in turn, aid individuals in operationalizing their leadership potential.

The "M*A*P*L*E*S" Approach to Leadership Development

Cultivating leadership enhancing skills will be accomplished by the establishment of a structured, self motivating , competence delivery system. This program, to be labeled "M*A*P*L*E*S" (Mastery and Proficiency of Leadership Enhancing Skills), assembles a varied array of learning opportunities and situations, and presents them to the individual. These learning opportunities and situations are, by design, diverse both in terms of structure and content. Some are highly formalized and the individual is essentially a passive student. Others involve a strong self initiative. The relevance of some of these learning situations is quite obvious while in others the linkage with leadership development is somewhat more indirect. Some of the activities to be mastered are intended, among other things, as confidence building exercises and broadening experiences, which will obliquely contribute to leadership potential.

The system is unique for several reasons. It addresses leadership self-development indirectly by promoting leadership enhancing skills. Also, it relies on a highly varied array of activities to be mastered in way of acquiring these leadership enhancing skills. Finally, rather than "packaging" particular sets of activities into rigidly structured learning units, the activities are offered in a completely open or unstructured fashion, thus, permitting the individual to pick and choose as he or she is attracted to a given activity or situation. This array of learning opportunities and situations constitutes a "cafeteria" or "menu" offering. Inasmuch as the Army, in effect, will be responsible for the original set of offerings, the initial "menu" will be *proactive*. The actual selection of learning challenges will represent a *reactive* "menu." The offering may, accordingly, have to be modified from time to time depending on the popularity or lack of popularity of specific learning opportunities, and also on the effectiveness, or lack of it, of various opportunities in terms of enhancing leadership potential.

Although the program is essentially a compilation of many diverse activities that, when mastered, will represent leadership enhancing competencies, in order to build self-motivation into the system, some element of symbolic accomplishment will need to be provided for mastering the different skills. Ideally, there should also be a competitive dimension to the system and, in that

sense, it could be structured as a game. As a "game,"
M*A*P*L*E*S offers two types of competition. One type would be
self-competition with the individual seeking to meet certain
standards in mastering various activities and requirements
offered in the menu. The mastery of some activities will
motivate the individual to push on and attempt to master other
skills, much as the hobbyist seeks to continually obtain new
collectibles, or to attain new levels or forms of
accomplishments. The second variety of competition is
interpersonal. The very nature of "M*A*P*L*E*S" tends to lend
itself to good natured status rivalry in terms of an individual
attempting to master more activities than his or her friends
(e.g. the better golf score, the bigger fish, or more culinary
fame as a patio barbecue cook for parties).

In order to provide a competitive element of the second
variety, some form of symbolic achievement would need to be
attached to the mastery of particular activities. Because the
activities are quite varied in difficulty, there would have to be
variable symbolic values for each, perhaps a given number of
points. The various learning opportunities and situations
offered in connection with a particular leadership enhancement
skill would carry differential numerical point values, depending
on the amount of time, effort, and initiative that the individual
might have to expend to master the skill, and also based on the
difficulty of the leadership challenge.

The presumed mastery of a given leadership enhancing skill
might be set at a particular numerical point level. This, in
turn, could be attained by pursuing a set of attendant learning
opportunities thereby earning a total of points equal to the
total determined to represent mastery of a skill. The mastery of
the skill might be symbolically recognized by the award of a
small cloisonne or enameled disc. The award disc could be
attached to a wall plaque. The plaque could be given when an
individual "enrolls" in a M*A*P*L*E*S Program. The accumulation
of points would have benefits beyond symbolic value. It would be
one measure of effort and accomplishment that might be taken into
account on annual efficiency reports. It might also be that
individuals who accumulated a large number of points could be
rewarded in some real fashion. Possibly, individuals who have
been very active in the program could be appropriately recognized
at suitable unit banquets or social affairs. Rewards of a "real"
nature would be dependant on the ingenuity of unit commanders,
but, certainly, there are numerous possibilities that could be
explored.

The specific form of symbolic value structure applied to the
system as discussed above *is simply an illustration and is not
necessarily a suggested arrangement!* The exact form of symbolic
value structure to be used with M*A*P*L*E*S should be left to the
discretion and imagination of the Commander or senior leader

employing the M*A*P*L*E*S system as an additional mechanism of leadership self-development. This would be a test of their own leadership potential. There are innumerable ways in which the system could be used. It represents a framework and the senior leaders may wish to use it in different ways or to embellish it as they see fit.

This program bears a strong superficial resemblance to the Merit Badge Program of the Boy Scouts in its structure, but the learning opportunities and situations are considerably more sophisticated. This competence delivery system will be self-motivated and the motivation will be sufficiently enthusiastic so as to provide appropriate momentum to an individual's self-development agenda. The enthusiasm will derive from various features of the system:

(a.) The system is structured essentially as a game, is competitive, and should, therefore, be "fun."

(b.) The various learning opportunities and situations are selected for inclusion in the program because they are relatively demanding and will be perceived as "challenging."

(c.) Many of the opportunities are unusual, if not arcane, and the novelty would serve to make them attractive, if not compelling.

(d.) Because there is a kind of "practicality" to many of the learning opportunities, they may well have a kind of natural appeal for Army personnel, who would seem to have a inherent affinity for useful competencies.

(e.) There is a group or interactive dimension to many of the learning opportunities and this may serve as a motivation in and of itself.

These advantages can, perhaps, be better visualized by considering one particularly critical compound skill that is very much a constituent element in leadership behavior and examining a few examples of learning opportunities and situations that might be offered through the M*A*P*L*E*S Program.

Verbal Communication

Even a cursory examination of history will serve to illustrate the fact that many great leaders were also skilled communicators. In the past, many individuals, William Jennings Bryan, Clarence Darrow, and Winston Churchill, to mention a few, attained great prominence in their respective fields partially because of their oratorical skills. More recently, it should be recalled that Ronald Reagan, often called the "great communicator," was quite successful in getting things

accomplished while President. Oratorical and other types of verbal communication skills have proved to be extremely functional for all sorts of people in different vocational circumstances.

Throughout history, verbal communication skills have been employed by religious leaders to great success. Earlier in the century, the famous evangelist, Billy Sunday, an ex-hard-drinking, ex-baseball player who was converted and became a preacher for the Y.M.C.A., had great speaking skills. It was said that his sermons "were as entertaining as a circus" (Carnegie, 1937:133-136). During his career, at one time or another, 80 million people came to hear him and it is alleged that more than 1,000,000 individuals were "saved" because of him. More recently, of course, Billy Graham has preached to millionsof Americans to great effect. There are hundreds of other famous or infamous ministers, televangelists, and cult leaders who exert great influence (and sometimes power) through their verbal communication skills. Preaching skills, like most skills, can be cultivated. Teaching preaching skills is called homiletics and this subject is taught at some colleges.

People in sales work, at all levels, benefit from effective verbal skills. This is true whether it is a 12-year-old female selling Girl Scout cookies door-to-door, or a national sales representative for a Fortune 500 corporation closing a $10,000,000 sale. Politicians and statesmen are often well served by their verbal communication skills. Sometimes the opposite can be just as true. President Woodrow Wilson was known as being a brilliant intellectual, but he failed at many things. He was an attorney, but he never conducted a case by himself. He tried to teach himself public speaking, but was unsuccessful. He lacked tact, and according to some critics, "never learned to handle people" (Carnegie, 1937:143-146). He failed to persuade the U.S. Senate to accept the League of Nations, and he died a broken man. His difficulties appear to have derived from two principal sources, he did not possess effective interpersonal skills or effective verbal communication skills.

Successful comedians depend heavily on properly timed, clearly articulated verbal delivery. Actors and actresses must be able to communicate verbally emotions and meaning in their dialogue. Physicians rely heavily on verbal communication skills to elicit appropriate information from their patients, to be able to correctly transmit diagnostic information, to effect proper "bedside manner," and to be able to reassure patients and instruct them accurately concerning their prescribed medical regimen. Even law enforcement officers need effective verbal communication skills for such purposes as interrogating suspects, questioning witnesses, and using a commanding and forceful voice in giving orders and directives to individuals in the course of their work.

Verbal Skills Via M*A*P*L*E*S

The following "menu" of learning situations and contexts offer some engaging opportunities for learning new verbal communication skills. Today, there is an effort to help individuals to develop highly specialized verbal skills of many varieties. Here in the Washington, D.C., area, for example, one university offers either credit courses, or short workshops on the following specialized kinds of verbal communication:

> Parliamentary Procedure
> Negotiations
> Collective Bargaining
> Media Conferences
> Public Speaking
> Argumentation and Debate
> Voice and Diction
> Interviewing Panel
> Presentations
> Effective Participation
> Business and Professional Speaking
> Performance Group Discussion
> Theater
> Voice for the Theater
> Stage Dialectics
> Speech Communication
> Sight and Sound
> Small Group Communication
> Forensic Practice

There may well be a number of other verbal communication related courses and/or short workshops to be found in the offerings of this university.

There are, of course, numerous other specialized forms of verbal communication such as interviewing, cross examination, story telling and interrogation to mention a few. All require special and unique skills. Presumably, an Army Officer at one time or another might have occasion to need a number of different verbal communication forms.

Any or all of these courses (or similar courses at other universities) might well be incorporated into the M*A*P*L*E*S program. If elements of the M*A*P*L*E*S "menu" involved numerical points, then each course or sets of course might earn a prespecified number of points.

M*A*P*L*E*S, however, should ideally rely more heavily on non-college activities as opposed to formal courses or workshops. As illustrations, a few possible activities are listed simply to convey the notion intended (including points):

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1. Verbal Skills in Religious Style (verbal communication of this variety tries to create mood, and influences the emotions of the listeners)

   (a) Take a college course in homiletics (50 points).

   (b) Attend at least 10 services conducted for different religious faiths or denominations, and/or different socio-economic levels. Keep notes on differential speaking styles (50 points).

   (c) Seek permission from your minister, priest, or rabbi (or any minister, priest, or rabbi of any place of worship) to give a guest sermon in your church or synagogue (50 points).

   (d) Attend at least 10 funerals at different churches and funeral homes and keep notes of speaking style in eulogies (25 points).

2. The Verbal Transmission of Information (This type of verbal communication seeks to convey facts and information. It seeks to convince the listener).

   (a) Take a college course in public speaking (50 points).

   (b) Take a non-credit course in public speaking from a commercial center or clinic (25 points).

   (c) Join the Toastmasters International Club and participate for one year, including giving a minimum of two banquet speeches (50 points).

   (d) Attend an auctioneering school (100 points).

   (e) Learn Square Dance Calling (short course, from a tutor, etc.,) and call at least five square dances (25 points).

   (f) Volunteer at your officers' club (or NCO club) or church to call the Bingo game on Bingo night (if in fact there is one). Call Bingo on five different nights (25 points).

These are only samples. Ideally the list for each compound skill should be expanded to 50-60 activities.

The Implementation of M*A*P*L*E*S

Other possible activities that might be included in a MAPLES program in another skill category area might range from participation in a Civil War reenactment program to serving as a

Leader of a Boy Scout Troop, and from taking a major theatrical part in a community Little Theater production to taking several days of leave time, traveling to Southern Pennsylvania and volunteering to be part of a Amish barn raising effort (a wonderful opportunity to observe the social dynamics of exemplary teamwork and leadership). It might well be productive to use the people who would participate in a M*A*P*L*E*S program as the source of learning activities and situations. Committees could compete in developing menus of opportunities. This would be an excellent exercise in creativity and planning itself.

Leadership as Product of Developing Leadership in Others

As mentioned earlier in the discussion, the Army charges its leaders with the responsibilities of assisting subordinates with their own leadership development, both formal, through schools and mentored on-the-job training, and informal, through the encouragement of self-education efforts. In connection with on-the-job training, commanding officers should develop in-unit programs for leadership development in subordinates. Concomitantly, the leader should strive to develop leadership teams because Army doctrine now stresses the importance of collective leadership in mainlining continuity and momentum of unit mission and effort in combat.

There is a certain amount of overlap among these responsibilities and the creation of innovative and compelling training programs for developing team leadership will often result in significant improvement in the leadership skills of subordinates. There is a certain amount of residual benefit for all personnel involved in the training, including building initiative, confidence, and self-motivation even in the lowest ranking members of the unit. Furthermore, the senior leader also should benefit significantly in terms of his or her own leadership potential. A well designed and innovative training exercise that invites enthusiasm and energetic participation on the part of subordinates promotes teamwork, group cohesion, and unit effectiveness among members of the unit, and also encourages self-initiative and spontaneity. The ability to improvise among subordinate leaders is bound to challenge the imagination of the commanders, and will enhance leadership skills as the exercise is perfected and implemented. The only limits are those imposed by the creative potential of the senior leader.

As a means of illustrating simple and easy to implement training exercises that generate unit teamwork and/or spontaneity, problem solving capability, and leadership, two examples of possible exercises are described. Keeping in mind current economic constraints and the attendant need to be cost effective, these training exercises involve only modest cost to develop. The consideration of expediency and ease of

implementation have also been taken into account in the proposals.

Specific Recommendations for Leadership Development Programs

The first proposal, the C*O*M*P*E*T*E program, is a nearly "seamless" mechanism for promoting group cohesion and teamwork, that engenders a wide variety of leadership enhancing skills as residual products. It would be very inexpensive to implement and has potential for generating ideas for other group activities that could be included in the program.

The second proposal, the C*R*I*S*I*S program is designed as a simple, theatrical "game" training exercise that promotes quick problem assessment, spontaneity, introspection, initiative, and logical thinking. It should encourage the development of leadership enhancing skills, and is an ideal exercise for a small group of NCO's or junior officers.

Proposal for a Program to Promote and Facilitate Teamwork

Few processes are of more critical importance to the accomplishment of military missions than that of teamwork. Teamwork is important at all levels of organization ranging from that required to operate a crew served weapon to the necessity for inter-unit coordination in carrying out combat operations. Unit teamwork is the very foundation of military organizational dynamics and the degree of teamwork that can be achieved is often directly reflected in the efficiency with which a military unit carries out its mission. Teamwork does more than promote organizational efficiency, however. It also tends to promote proficiency, confidence, and morale on the part of the individuals who make up the group or the unit. Teamwork promotes familiarity with operating procedures, reinforces discipline, and contributes to unit cohesion. Unit teamwork also encourages and facilitates the cultivation of leadership among subordinates which, in turn, aids significantly in the development of leadership teams.

Teamwork has traditionally been fostered through the practice of group training exercises which were repeated many times until all activities were quite routine, and the groups had acquired an intimate familiarity with all aspects of the task, and also achieved a high degree of efficiency in performing it. Unit cohesion was presumed to be a residence product.

Such a mechanism for building teamwork is not without dysfunction, however. The redundancy of repeating some technical or tactical exercise over and over can easily inure members of the unit to the exercise and its goal. This type of practice promotes a kind of mechanical facility with the task rather than encouraging an extemporaneous capability in the unit's personnel.

The redundancy of a rote tactical exercise does not inspire creativity nor significantly advance versatility. No skills beyond the principal nexus of tasks involved in the exercise are cultivated, and initiative is more stifled than nourished. Military unit teamwork is not necessarily only nurtured by having the unit participate in military exercises or activities. Indeed, unit participation in group activities totally divorced from the military may well be more productive in some instances in that the potential for individual growth and group emendation may be greater. The major criterion in selecting a mechanism to promote teamwork should be the question of how effective is the mechanism in terms of results, the cultivation of residual skills, and individual motivation. The proposed mechanism is a non-military exercise that would appear to handily meet the listed criteria.

The C*O*M*P*E*T*E Program

C*O*M*P*E*T*E (Collective Opportunities to Motivate and Perfect Enlisted Teamwork Effort) is an intrinsically motivating group activity that serves as a cohesion building, teamwork intensive, leadership enhancing, multi-skill, learning system. The COMPETE Program utilizes the general structures of certain conventional group activities from civilian culture, with certain modifications, as a vehicle for encouraging military unit teamwork and amplifying leadership skill. A wide variety of group activities requiring concerted group effort are included, ranging from construction projects to entertainment presentations to community enterprises. For purpose of illustration, the employment of a theatrical production will be discussed. (Again, the theatrical production is only one of a group of collaborative activities.)

The theatrical production is an almost ideal group activity for practicing and enhancing teamwork, and for promoting leadership skills. Among the strengths and advantages of such a training mechanism are:

1. A theater production can accommodate almost any number participants. (Plays can range from one man shows to epic presentations involving literally hundreds of individuals.)

2. Theater productions are generally quite complex in their execution and, accordingly, can be an extremely challenging exercise for unit personnel.

3. The skill requirements for participation are inordinately variable spanning jobs as simple as stage hand, as creative as set designer, and as managerially demanding as production director.

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4. Most theatrical production have numerous "middle
    management" supervisory positions such as stage
    manager, lighting director, assistant director, casting
    director, etc., and, thus, there is an ample number of
    leadership statuses.

5. Participants in theatrical productions generally find
    the effort to be extremely challenging, but also
    extraordinarily rewarding. Persons involved in the
    theater are usually very highly motivated.

6. Because of the critical emphases on timing and
    illusion, theatrical production requires maximum
    teamwork, coordination, and articulated precision on
    the one hand, and tolerates minimal errors, mistakes,
    and inferior effort on the other. This is especially
    the case among the supervisory group.

7. Involvement in theater productions encourages and
    strengthens verbal skills and dramaturgical skills, not
    only among those individuals with acting parts, but
    also among those in support positions inasmuch as they
    are intimate observers.

8. Theatrical productions are prone to crises and
    emergencies (including, sometimes near disasters),
    which in turn calls for spontaneity, initiative,
    ingenuity, creativity, and quick thinking and decision
    making).

9. Because of the creative nature of the theatrical
    "product" there is frequently great pride in a
    successful production, on the part of all participants.
    Such pride promotes bonding, unit cohesion, self
    confidence, and confidence in the group. This may be
    especially the case if different units are competing
    with their theatrical productions.

10. Participation in a theatrical production is often a
    very intense experience and individuals who are
    involved find that the experience has a very cathartic
    quality and, in many instances, feel very close to the
    other participants.

Beyond the more obvious advantages there are also several
residual benefits. These include:

1. A theatrical production involves all kinds of skills
    and also incorporate a variety of knowledge either in
    the content of the play of in the production process or
    both. Participants not infrequently acquire some of

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the skills and knowledge in a kind of serendipitous
fashion.

2.   Most plays, by esign, have some moral, ethical, or
      philosophical element or issue and the participants
      tend to learn something from the play regarding such
      issues or dilemmas.

3.   Participation in a theatrical production in any
      capacity, not infrequently piques the curiosity of
      those involved and motivates them to seek to satisfy
      that curiosity. In some instances, the individuals
      involved received inspiration from their participation
      and this inspiration induced them to take on greater
      challenges in other contexts.

To involve periodically a military unit in a C*O*M*P*E*T*E
activity provides them with the opportunity to take on a group
challenge and work together in a highly concerted and coordinated
fashion, often with enthusiastic motivation. All of the members
of the unit have their teamwork skills improved and may acquire
totally new skills or strengthen old skills. Those individuals
in supervisory positions can exercise their leadership skills and
see the results in a very visible fashion. Many other
individuals with no supervisory responsibilities may have a
chance to demonstrate initiative, creativity, and versatility
and, by extension, develop leadership skills.

The selection of a theatrical production as one of the
vehicles used in C*O*M*P*E*T*E *should* *not* be viewed as simply
putting on a play! The training exercise will be structured in a
far more complex and challenging fashion. By design, the play
will incorporate a wide variety of last minute changes and
different scenarios for certain scenes and actions. Through
manipulative efforts, crises and emergencies will be artificially
introduced into the production process, requiring spur-of-the-
moment decisions on the part of different managerial persons.
Individuals, and especially supervisory persons, will be
reassigned to other responsibilities on a last minute or rush
basis. Problems will have to be solved in a spontaneous manner.
All of this will significantly elevate the experience to much
more of a leadership challenge and should encourage versatility,
initiative, and ingenuity.

There will be critics who say that civilian theater has
little relevance to military training. This complaint can be
addressed by the simple expedient of using plays with a military
content or context such as *The Cage*, *The Caine Mutiny Court
Marshall*, *The Trial of Captain Wirtz*, or *The Court Martial of
Billy Mitchell*. As mentioned earlier, many plays, and certainly
the "military" plays mentioned here have strong moral, ethical,
or philosophical elements or controversy imbedded in them. This

provides an excellent foil for a serious examination of ethical issues as mandated by Army Doctrine. In FM 22-100, it is emphasized that, "The ethical development of self and subordinates is a key component of leader development" (p.vii).

Involvement in theatrical productions is certainly not alien to the Army. In an issue of *Pentagram* (DeGregory, June 11, 1993: 22-23) earlier in the summer, there was an account of preparations for the Annual Production of the *Spirit of America* at the Capital Center ("the annual patriotic telling of the Army's history") using an Army cast and production crew. In a more recent issue of *Pentagram* (Ealons, August 20, 1993: 5) there is a article about preparation for the summer's production of *Twilight Tattoo*, which incorporates some dramatic sequences into the marching drill and musical presentations.

Finally, it should be noted that after a theatrical production has been mastered by a unit, a "straight" version might be performed for some worthy community group such as nursing home residents or disadvantaged youth, thereby accomplishing a public relations goal.

To implement the C*O*M*P*E*T*E program, it would be necessary to identify and appropriately modify various group activities such as theatrical productions, for use as teamwork training exercises. This could be done at very moderate cost on a small contract basis. Then designated officers in large units or at a base level could attend a *short workshop* and receive an orientation to the Program and instructions on its implementation.

C*R*I*S*I*S: A Quick Assessment and Decision-making Game

The exercise of leadership often calls for quick decisions. Such decisions should be well-reasoned, if not well-informed. When confronting a crisis or emergency, the leader must rapidly, sometimes almost instantaneously, assess the situation, evaluate whatever information is available, develop an inventory of optional responses or actions, and make a decision based on what is perceived to be the most effective option in terms of achieving a satisfactory outcome. Successfully mastering this process is a competence that must be cultivated, often over a long period of time, based on experience, practice, and insight skills.

Practice, even based on simulation, can be helpful to the individual, in terms of perfecting assessment and decision making skills. C*R*I*S*I*S (Critical Reaction Indicating Suitable Intervention Scenario) is a simulation game that provides such practice. It has the further benefit of affording immediate critical feedback, and generating alternate situational assessments and decisions for comparison and analysis. In generating alternate reactions and responses, this exercise

compellingly makes the point that, in response to a crisis
situation, there is often no absolutely correct solution or
response. There may be multiple responses that would be
appropriate and various responses that could well be valid and
effective. It is desirable to be aware of differential
perspectives of a critical or emergency situation and to be able
to examine different approaches to confronting the problem.

The mechanics of C*R*I*S*I*S are relatively simple. A stage
or small auditorium is the most preferred setting, but a large
room, empty at one end and with audience chairs or seating at the
other end is quite satisfactory. An alternative arrangement
would be to have the seating surround an open area serving as a
stage, a kind of miniature in the round. The game is essentially
a small cast sociodrama. If necessary, it could operate with
only one actor - the subject, provided remote loud-speaker
equipment is available. A lighting layout that provides for an
overhead spotlight over the action, and a darkened stage outside
the spotlight with a darkened audience area is particularly
desirable.

The Dynamics of C*R*I*S*I*S

The individuals involved in the exercise rotate as the
subject "actor." There is a bed in the middle of the stage with
a telephone on a night table beside it. The subject simulates
going to bed. The entire room is darkened. After an interval,
the telephone rings several times and then the subject answers
it. The spotlight illuminates the immediate area around the bed,
while the rest of the stage, and the audience area remains
darkened.

The subject sitting up in bed listens on the telephone. The
remote loud-speaker permits the audience the hear what the
telephone caller is saying. The message communicated by the
caller always revolves around a danger or threat, or some
imminent emergency situation. The subject listener has only a
short time period (60 seconds) to develop an appropriate response
or plan of action. There is a large inventory of crisis messages
and the caller ;lects one randomly. A typical message might be
something like:

> Hello, Bill! This is your neighbor Bruce
> Jones. I got out of bed to get a glass of
> water and when I looked out the window I saw
> bright lights in your son's upstairs bedroom.
> It looks like flames. I think that there is
> a fire in that room. You had better do
> something, and quick!

The subject now must quickly assess the situation and arrive at a
plan of action. He has various options. He can call 911 and
then go upstairs to investigate personally. He can yell out for
everyone in the house to wake up and get out quickly because of

fire. He can rush upstairs to see for himself if, in fact, there is actually a fire. He can quickly grasp a blanket from his bed, go into his bathroom and wet the blanket in the shower, and then go up to fight the fire. He can run outside and look up at the bedroom window to see if flames are visible, and not necessarily have to wake up his son upstairs if there are no flames. There are also other possible scenarios from which the subject may choose a solution. He makes his decision and announces his intended plan. The theatrical part of the exercise unit is now over. The audience lights go on and every member (or a predetermined number) gives a critique of the decision and, if they disagree with the plan of action, tell what they would do and give reasons why!

The subject can repeat the exercise with different telephone crisis messages. If desired, actors other than the subject might be integrated into the plot to make the crisis more complex and more challenging. If desired all of the emergencies or crises can be of a military variety. Each subject reacts to a predetermined number of crises (10-15, perhaps), and then someone else takes their place.

While this crisis simulation mechanism is quite simple it serves a number of purposes including:

1. Individuals are put into a situation where they are confronted with a surprise simulated crisis, and have only a brief interval to develop an appropriate reaction. Thus, the individual learns to think quickly.

2. The surprise simulated crises are of such a nature that there is not one particular indicated response, but many valid reaction plans. The individual must, accordingly, mentally review various options, consider advantages and disadvantages and make a decision.

3. Once a decision is made the individual must then confront critique and criticism, and if the preponderance of sentiment among the members of the audience indicates an alternative decision, then the subject must defend his or her decision and rebut the alternatives.

4. In confronting various alternative response to the crisis situations, the individuals become increasingly aware that any crisis alls for a careful (but prompt) examination and appraisal of all possible responses and the consequences of proceeding with one as opposed to the other. They come to understand that no option is without disadvantage or advantage. Leadership necessarily involves picking and choosing.

While subordinate commanders should be encouraged to design their own leadership development training exercises, it is possible to provide some structure and direction to such efforts. A senior commander might challenge his or her subordinate commanders to create models of leadership promoting exercises or programs, and then have the various models or exercises evaluated by a group of judges. The exercises deemed to be most potentially effective could be included in an anthology or handbook of leadership development training exercises which could be used by the entire larger unit. The competitive nature of this enterprise should motivate the subordinate commanders to try and produce the best possible training exercises in the hopes that their entry would be accepted for inclusion in the anthology. The fact that all of the exercises contained in the anthology would be the product of members of the larger unit should promote unit pride and identification, and this would be a motivational factor for those who participate in the training exercises.

Summary

The impact of on-going technological and social change on the Army today is making the process of leadership development more imperative. In this regard, some new directions in augmentation efforts might make the self-development pillar of the program more effective.

A basic problem in leadership development may be due to the fact that the concept of leadership has never been well defined. If leadership could be operationally defined as a social role, then it would be possible to conceptualize practical means of attempting to inculcate this behavioral potential in others. Inasmuch as the optimal goal in role behavior is effectiveness, such a conceptualization lends itself to attainable outcomes and evaluative measurement.

Conceptualizing leadership as a social role means that it must be viewed as conventional behavior, as the mastery of complex tasks frequently using others to accomplish these tasks, as a complex skill often operating at an everyday level of task accomplished involving interpersonal interaction, and as a complex competence that can be effectively inculcated into individuals.

Because statuses, with their attendant social roles, are often linked to various other statuses and social roles in a reciprocal fashion, the resulting potential model of interaction or *role set* is a very utilitarian mechanism for learning the expectation concerning a given job or position. It is also helpful in sensitizing individuals to the import of linkages with others in the work unit. Status and social roles are concepts that facilitate learning the parameters of a job, and

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understanding the tasks that are essential for accomplishing it. The social role is an effective socialization mechanism, and even emotional control can be learned using it. In socializing as individual using social role, role compliance at the informal level who occurs.

Effective role playing depends on acquiring the necessary skills and competencies to meet the expectations that are constituent to the role. In the case of the leadership role, it may be difficult to learn the necessary skills directly, but it is quite possible to learn the intermediate supporting skills that enhance the ability to play the supernumerary leadership role. In this regard, skills have a cumulative character in that some skills build on other skills. A set of simple skills may form the basis for more complex skills. Complex skills, in turn may combine and integrate into capstone or supernumerary skills such as leadership.

Leadership enhancing skills then become critical competencies in playing a leadership role. Such skills can be acquired through self-development efforts. To expedite and facilitate such an enterprise, the establishment of a structured, self-motivating, competence delivery system labeled M*A*P*L*E*S was described in detail. The operation of the system was illustrated by describing how it might help in developing complex verbal communication skills that would aid in effective leadership role playing. Finally, it was pointed out that leadership self-development can also be promoted through the process of creating in-unit programs for leadership development in subordinates. Two such teamwork enhancing and leadership promoting training exercises, labeled C*O*M*P*E*T*E*, and C*R*I*S*I*S were described in detail and their utility articulated.

Conclusions

Self-education is a highly utilitarian means of maintaining various competencies, staying abreast of the expansion of knowledge in a given field, and pursuing new directions of intellectual inquiry. Professionals in many fields rely on self-education as a mechanism to "keep up" with advances in their discipline or specialty area. There are limits, however, on what can be accomplished in this matter in terms of the acquisition of new information and knowledge. There are some augmentation measures that can be initiated that could facilitate and enhance self-development. Such measures are necessarily modest, but if properly implemented they can produce impressive results. A number of such measures have been proposed and detailed in this report. Most of the suggested initiatives are not particularly expensive and should be quite cost effective. Their adoption might well engender yet other new approaches to making self-development more effective and the process could gain new

momentum.   Even accretionary efforts can often yield a
surprisingly beneficial outcome.

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